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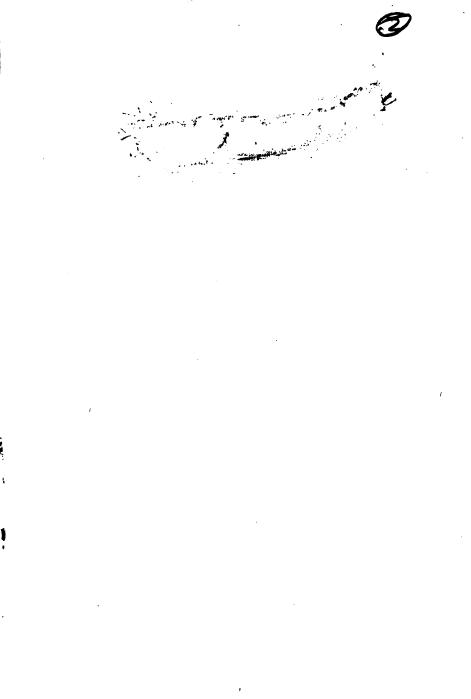


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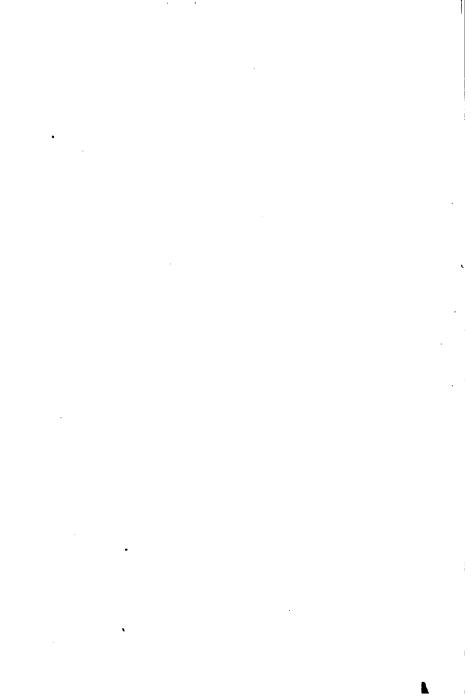


GIFT OF THE
GRADUATE SCHOOL
OF EDUCATION









# BARNES'

# WORKING LESSONS

IN ENGLISH

OR

# SHORT STUDIES

PARTS II & III

(ENLARGED)



**X**llustrated

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GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

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TEACHERS who believe that pupils should learn to express their thoughts with ease and rapidity, either orally or in writing, will heartly welcome this little volume.

Accustomed to the listless iteration of grammatical nomenclature, a great surprise awaits the teacher who faithfully tries to carry out the author's methods as here developed.

Nothing delights a pupil more than to be able to apply principles already learned, and when the successive steps are so gradual that he passes from one to another without difficulty, his delight is doubled.

Many a bright boy completes the course in our public schools, thoroughly familiar with all the technical details of the subject of grammar, but wofully deficient in ability to express his thoughts.

Believing that pupils ought to be able to apply the principles of any science as fast as learned, this volume aims to furnish the largest possible amount of work for the pupils' hands and eyes, and to prevent the committing to memory of abstract facts without knowing the reasons therefor.

The active, restless mind of the young pupil must be kept occupied; and if, in addition to such mental activity, the hands and eyes are kept employed, intellectual development is assured.

It will be simply impossible for the pupil to go through Part One of Short Studies in English, in the manner intended, without learning the use of Capitals, Punctuation, something of the structure of the English Sentence, and Letter-writing.

Each Language Exercise of this book should be specially used to develop the principle learned in the previous section. No teacher will attempt to teach every thing pertaining to a written exercise in one lesson; but will first develop the subject matter of the lesson, and, incidentally, that of all previous lessons. In this way, each exercise will be a constant daily review of all matter previously learned.

Teachers are earnestly requested to carry out the ideas of the author by having all work done as directed. It will avail but little to go over the book, committing definitions, without applying the principles.

Vary the exercises by using the slate, paper, or blackboard; also by supplying other exercises similar to those given in the book.

Use pictures from other books, magazines, or papers, to give new thoughts and ideas. The ability to vary an exercise is a great accomplishment in a teacher.

The perceptive faculties of the mind must be stimulated and thoughts engendered, before facility of expression can be expected.

# PART II.

#### 1. THE SENTENCE.

You may think of something that birds do. You may now tell what you thought about birds.

What did you do first?
What did you do after you had thought?

You may now think of something that cats do; ducks; hens; monkeys.

Write what you have thought about each of these animals.

Example.—Ducks swim.

A thought expressed in words is a sentence.

#### EXERCISE.

You may tell why each of the following groups of words is a sentence.

Wool is soft. Boys like foot-ball. Roses are fragrant. Kittens are playful. Swallows fly rapidly. Showers cool the air. Pansies are beautiful. Oak-trees grow slowly.

#### EXERCISE.

You may write eight sentences, using in each, one of the following words:

bell	stone	home	thimble
mice	knife	spoon	carriage

# 2. UNITING SHORT SENTENCES.



THE QUAIL.

Quails eat berries and grain.

Quails eat small insects. Quails fly low.

Quails sleep on the ground.

How many sentences are there in this group? Why is each a sentence?

We will unite these sentences.

Quails eat berries, grain, and small insects. They fly low, and sleep on the ground.

#### EXERCISE.

Unite the sentences in the following groups, and tell why each is a sentence.

Owls fly about at night.
Owls eat mice and birds.
Owls can see in the dark.



THE OWL.

A camel is a large animal.

A camel has a long neck.

It has a small head.

A camel is kind and patient.

It can easily travel over a sandy desert.

# 3. THE SUBJECT.

You may write a sentence about each of these words:

ls:	·	
ants	birds	
boys	tigers	
lions	bears	



THE CAMEL.

cows

horses

Example.—Birds fly among the branches of the trees.

What did you say about cows? About tigers? About how many animals have you written? What did you say about each?

That about which something is said, is a subject.

#### EXERCISE.

You may write the **subjects** in the sentences given below. Tell why each is a **subject**.

Model.— is a subject, because it is that about which something is said.

Cats have soft fur.
Boys play base-ball.
Dogs are fond of home.
Cows have parted hoofs.
Horses are fond of sugar.

Acorns grow on oak-trees.

Silk is made by silk-worms.

Pea-nuts grow under ground.

Cocoa-nuts grow on palm-trees.

Snow melts when the sun shines.

### 4. USING CERTAIN WORDS AS SUBJECTS.

You may write something about each of the **subjects** given below.

Example.—Large whales | are seldom found.

Place double vertical lines after each subject, as above.

red roses	strong cord	large whales
new books	green grass	ripe strawberries
cold water	wild daisies	beautiful pictures
noisy boys	young birds	very tall pine-trees

Tell why each is a subject.

Model.—Large whales is a subject, because it is that about which something is said.

How many words are there in each of the subjects about which you have written?

# A subject often consists of a number of words.

You may write five subjects. Tell something about each. Explain why each is a subject.

# B. USE OF THEM AND THOSE.

You may write the sentences given below, supplying in each, one of the words them or those.

Caution.—Do not use those with a singular noun. Do not use them for those.

I saw —— on the table.	How pretty ———————————————————————————————————
I should like to see ——.	Please bring me —— roses.
books are Edward's.	I think —— books are mine.
Can you use ——— skates?	Please hand me —— apples.





What is this boy doing?
Why does he carry the little girl?
What is the other little girl doing?
Why are these children walking in the water?
Where does the water come from?
How many boats do you see in the distance?

You may ask five other questions about this picture. Answer the questions, and connect the answers in the form of a story.

Explain each of the marks of punctuation you have used. Name the words that you have begun with capital letters, and give reason for the use of each capital.

#### 7. THE PREDICATE.

Beavers swim.

What is the **subject** of this sentence? What is said about **beavers**?

You may write something about each of the following subjects:

My new kite. A pretty leaf. The small chair.
A large book. A sharp knife. A bag of marbles.
The large box. The young bird. The spool of thread.

Examples.—The large box is square.

My new kite is a large one.

That which is said about a subject, is called a predicate.

#### EXERCISE.

You may supply subjects, and explain the sentences given below.

Models.—Sponge grows, is a sentence, because it is a thought expressed in words.

Sponge is the subject, because it is that about which something is said.

Grows is the predicate, because it is that which is said of the subject.

Sponge grows.	cackle.	draw loads.
sing.	jumps.	climb trees.
walk.	blossom.	have wings.
—— reads.	——— eat nuts.	make honey.
skate.	play ball.	build houses.
swim.	—— has a kite.	catch insects.
croak.	mow grass.	study lessons.

# 8. PREDICATES CONSISTING OF A NUMBER OF WORDS.

You may supply subjects, and tell why each of the following is a predicate.

—— has been seen in the window. —— plays with a ball. —— runs up stairs. —— grows in the garden. —— are caught in many parts of the ocean. —— are made of iron.

How many words are there in some of these predicates?

A predicate often consists of a number of words.

#### 9. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.

Where is this boy standing?

What is he doing?

How do the boy's clothes seem?

Where is the boy filling his jug?

After he has filled the large jug with water, where will he carry it?

How old is the boy?

What time of the year do you think it is?

You may ask five other questions about this picture. Answer the questions, and connect the answers in the form of a story.



# 10. USE OF IS, ARE, WAS, AND WERE.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one of the words is, are, was, or were.

They —— here. The sailor —— on the ship.	The ashes
taken away. The kittens asleep when I	saw them.
One of you mistaken. Six too many	apples for
you. The scissors —— broken by accident.	My fingers
frozen. It — not your fault.	

# 11. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



You may write a description of rabbits, using the following

Points.—Soft fur; black, white, or gray; hind legs short; jumps very far; long ears; large eyes; short tail; eats grass and leaves of vegetables; chews the cud; very timid; flesh used for food.

# 12. USE OF SHE, I, HIM, AND ME.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one or more of the words she, I, him, or me.

—— is older than •——.	Ask —— to go with ——.
It was not — whom I met.	Shall you and ——— go down
to the pond? Uncle Joseph ca	me for you and ——. Those
gloves are for That is	not ——. It is ——. This
orange is for you and ——.	Who will go? — will go.
John went with you and	

## 13. KINDS OF NOUNS.

Two boys are in the same class: the name of one is Thomas; the name of the other, Arthur.

Do you know which of these boys I mean, when I say boy?

Why do you know which one I mean, when I say Thomas?

Do you know which month I mean, when I say month?

Why do you know which month I mean, when I say June?

What then is the difference between the words boy and month, and the words Thomas and June?

Nouns like month, boy, and girl, are called common nouns.

A common noun is the name given to any one of a class of objects.

Names like Thomas, Boston, June, and Monday, are called proper nouns.

A proper noun is the name of a particular object. A proper noun must always begin with a capital letter.

Point out the common nouns and proper nouns in the following sentences:

John has more books than George. In July, our vacation will begin. August is a warm month. The President of the United States is inaugurated in the month of March.

#### EXERCISE.

You may write ten **common nouns.** Tell why they are common nouns. Write ten **proper nouns.** Tell why they are proper nouns.

# 14. LANGUAGE EXERCISES.



You may ask ten questions suggested by this preture. Answer the questions, and connect the answers in the form of a story.



You may ask ten questions suggested by this picture. Answer the questions, and connect the answers in the form of a story.

# 18. USING COMMON AND PROPER NOUNS.

You may write the **common** and **proper nouns** given below, writing each kind in a separate column. Write something about each.

# Example.—The crayon is brittle.

pen	book	Utica	Albany
bell	ruler	pencil	ink-stand
slate	Lucy	Boston	Baltimore

You may write five other common and five other proper nouns. Write something about each.

Tell why each noun you have used is called a proper, or a common noun.

# 16. EXPLAINING SENTENCES.

You may explain the sentences given below, using this model.

- 1. Sentence.
- 2. Subject.
- 3. Predicate.
- Why
- 4. Common noun.
- 5. Proper noun.

# Models.—— is a common noun, because it is the name given to any one of a class of objects.

— is a proper noun, because it is the name of a particular object.

Caterpillars will change to butterflies. Swallows and robins like the homes of men. Many beautiful plants grow in the ocean. The swamps of Florida are called everglades. The life of the butterfly is short. William has read Robinson Crusoe. The leaves of the geranium are fragrant. Brooklyn is on Long Island.

#### 17. UNITING SENTENCES.



THE WHALE.

You may unite the sentences in the following groups, as in section 96.

The whale is a large animal. The whale lives in the ocean. The whale has small eyes. The whale has small ears. The whale can hear quickly. Oil is made from the whale. Whale-bone comes from the whale.

Gold is a very useful metal. The color of gold is yellow. It is found in sand. Gold is found in rocks. It is used for coining money.

Paper was made in ancient times. It was made from the stems of the papyrus plant. Paper is now made from straw, old paper, rags, and wood. It is used for writing, printing, wrapping, car-wheels, pails, and fans.

Jennie and I went to Boston. We went to visit Aunt Lucy. We went to buy toys for little Mary. We bought her a doll and a doll's house. Aunt Lucy sent her some oranges. Uncle James took us to the Museum.

#### 18. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



You may write a story about dogs, suggested by this picture, using the following

Points.—How many dogs; different kinds; how alike; how different; what time of year; how dogs drink.

### 19. USE OF FROZE AND FROZEN.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one of the words froze, or frozen.

Your ears have been ——. The lake is —— over. I am afraid I shall be ——. I hope my plants are not ——. The water —— in the pan. It —— an inch thick. The plants look as though they were ——. You look as though you were nearly ——.

### 20. DIAGRAMMING.

Trees grow.

Why is this a sentence? What is the subject?

What is the predicate?

What word limits the subject trees?

What word limits the predicate grow?

Words used to limit other words are called **mod-**iflers.

Where is the word limiting the subject, placed in the diagram?

Where is the word limiting the **predicate**, placed?

#### EXERCISE.

You may diagram the following sentences, pointing out the limiting-words.

Some men act foolishly. Dirty streets look badly. Many birds sing sweetly. Many children read nicely.

Many persons write poorly.

The church-bells ring slowly.

## 21. COMPOSING SENTENCES.

You may compose five sentences, and diagram them according to the following model.

#### 22. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.

What is this building called? What is its shape? What has it on one side? For what is it used?

What is the man in the cart doing?

You may ask five other questions about this picture. Answer the questions, and write a description of a windmill.



THE WIND MILL

# 23. USE OF FORGOTTEN AND FORGOT.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one of the words forgot, or forgotten.

	You have	yo	our hat.	Who	has —		to	bring	paper?
Ι	the	bouquet	you gave	me.	Who	said	it	was	?
τ	have —	- mine.	I —— 1	to tell	vou w	ho c	alle	ed.	

## 24. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



A LIGHT-HOUSE.

You may describe this picture, using the following Points.—On the sea-shore; thick stone walls; high; large lantern; dark night; strong light, far out on the water; guides sailors; saves lives; strong foundation; dashing waves; faithful keeper.

#### 25. USE OF TEACH AND LEARN.

To teach, is to give instruction.

To learn, is to receive instruction.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one of the words teach, or learn.

I can — my lesson. Will you — me to draw? How long will it take you to — me? I can not — my geography lesson. Will you — me how to skate? Do not ask me to — you You will not — me how to knit.

#### 26. DIAGRAMMING.

Beautiful violets blossom early in the spring.

Beautiful blossom early in the spring.

This is a sentence, because it is a thought expressed in words.

Beautiful violets is the subject, because it is that about which something is said.

Beautiful is an adjective modifier of the noun violets. Blossom early in the spring is the predicate, because it is that which is said of the subject.

Early in the spring is an adverbial modifier of the verb blossom.

#### EXERCISE.

In the same manner, you may diagram and explain the following sentences:

Wild roses grow plentifully in waste places. Indian corn grows rapidly in hot weather. Busy farmers rise early in the morning. Beautiful ferns are found in deep woods. Common buttercups are seen by dusty road-sides. The sweet-flag blossoms freely in moist meadows. Tiger-lilies wave gracefully in wet places.

# 27. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



cotton-mill in the United States, 1791; Eli Whitney's cotton-gin, 1793; woven into cloth; used in hospitals, for burns and wounds; United States greatest cotton-producing country; labor of production done chiefly by negroes; important article of commerce.

COTTON.

You may write a description of the cotton-plant, using the following

Points.—Plant; shrubby; flower, red, purple, yellow; grows in warm climates; blossoms about June; picking begins about August; India the oldest cotton-producing country; introduced into this country in 1536; first



# 28. USE OF SPOKE AND SPOKEN.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one of the words spoke, or spoken.

He very well. Willie -	—— with ease	. You have
too soon. The man	in German.	I should have
louder. Have they to	you about it?	Has Edward
to you about it? Who said		
you had of it? He has	- 1	10.00
the truth.	* XXV	Y 42
	1000	AND AND

# 29. LANGUAGE EX-ERCISE.

You may write a story, suggested by these pictures.

Points.—Dog ran; barked; through field; saw frog; grass; bank; large; spotted; long jumps; swam; shore; hid; under stumps; safe; croaks; at night; ponds, ditches, and marshes.

# 30. NOUN COMPLE-MENTS.

General Grant was president.

What is the **predicate** of this sentence?

What word in the predicate tells what Grant was?





What part of speech is president?

If we should say General Grant was, the sentence would be incomplete.

What word in the sentence completes the meaning of the verb was?

When a word is used to complete the meaning of a verb, it is called its complement.

When a **noun** is used to complete the meaning of a **verb**, it is called a **noun complement**.

#### EXERCISE.

You may point out the **noun complements** in the sentences given below. Explain why each is a **complement**.

Model.—		is	a	noun	complement,	completing	$\mathbf{the}$
meaning of	the ve	rb					

Iron is a metal. Oysters are bivalves. Wood was a botanist. Asbestus is a mineral. Longfellow was a poet. Webster was an orator.

Morse was an inventor.

The book is a geography.

The general is an invalid.

The horse is a quadruped.

# 31. FORMING SENTENCES WITH NOUN COMPLEMENTS.

You may form sentences, using in each, one of the words given below, as noun complements. Explain why each is a complement.

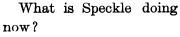
ax	shell	paper	whale
log	book	house	ostrich
hat	stove	$\mathbf{camel}$	leopard
bird	wood	string	elephant

#### 32. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.

This is Speckle. What is she doing?

What will she do after she eats the corn?





What happened to Speckle's nest of eggs?





You may ask other questions about these pictures. Answer the questions, and connect the answers in the form of a story.

# 33. USE OF WHO AND WHOM.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one of the words, who or whom.

To —— are you writing? To —— do you re	fer?
do you look for? From ———————— is your letter?	will
carry the parcel for me? To —— will you take	the grapes?
—— will go if I do not? —— did you invite?	For
are these flowers? To —— was the offer made?	

### 34. ADJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS.

Gold is yellow.

What is the subject of this sentence?

What is the **predicate?** 

What word completes the meaning of the verb is?

What part of speech is yellow?

When an adjective is used to complete the meaning of a verb, it is called an adjective complement.

#### EXERCISE.

You may point out the adjective complements in the sentences given below. Explain each.

Model.— is an adjective complement, completing the meaning of the verb ——.

Ice is cold. Chalk is brittle. Clover is fragrant.

Fur is soft. Lemons are sour. The pencil is black.
Coal is useful. Dogs are faithful. Kittens are playful.
Lead is heavy. A tiger is striped. Acorn cups are rough.
Gold is yellow. Oranges are juicy. The summer is warm.

#### EXERCISE.

You may form sentences containing the words given below, used as adjective complements. Explain each sentence.

fine	large	${f round}$	honest
bold	black	bright	square
long	$\mathbf{small}$	coarse	beautiful
high	$\mathbf{green}$	pretty	sparkling





EDWIN LEE AND HIS MOTHER.

Where are Mrs. Lee and Edwin? What season of the year is it? What is Edwin doing? Why does he tie up the flowers? What kind of flowers are they? What is Mrs. Lee doing?

For whom do you think she is knitting the stocking?

You may ask ten other questions suggested by this picture. Answer the questions, and connect the answers in the form of a story.

# 36. OBJECT COMPLEMENTS.

The soldiers built the fort.

What was it the soldiers built?

What word completes the meaning of the verb built?

What kind of a verb is built?

What **pronoun** could be used in place of the words, the fort?

A noun, or pronoun, used to complete the meaning of a verb, is called an object complement.

#### EXERCISE.

You may write the sentences given below, supplying object complements in the vacant places. Tell why each is an object complement.

Ships carry ——.	California produces ——.
James bought ——.	Colorado mines yield
Coral insects build ——.•	Edward made a large ——.
Ships visit foreign ——.	New York State produces
Each boy carried a ——.	George has been studying

Model.—George has been studying Latin.

Latin is the object complement of the verb has been studying.

# 37. FORMING SENTENCES WITH OBJECT COMPLEMENTS.

You may write sentences, using the following verbs.

Each sentence must have an object complement.

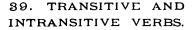
### Example.—George received the letter.

saw	wrote	bought	has learned
$\mathbf{made}$	sewed	followed	had painted
saved	sawed	had given	was singing
found	picked	is learning	have learned

#### 38. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.

You may write a description of Indian corn, using the following

Points.—Tall; straight; glossy; green leaves; jointed stems; fibrous roots; kernels hard; yellow; white; grows in cool climates; for what used; which states produce most; likes hot weather; by whom raised chiefly.



- 1. William laughed.
- '2. George has seen a wind-mill.

In which of these sentences is the **object complement?** 

Can you add an **object** complement to the first sentence?



You may write in one column all the verbs in the following list, after which object complements can

be placed; and in another column, you may write all those after which an **object complement** can not be placed.

ate	wept	came	drank
ran	drive	listen	$\mathbf{sawed}$
sung	$\mathbf{crept}$	begin	sprung
drew	arose	swam	shrunk

A verb that requires an object complement, is called a transitive verb.

A verb that does not require an object complement, is called an intransitive verb.

#### EXERCISE.

You may explain the transitive and intransitive verbs in the following sentences.

Birds fly.	Pansies bear seed.
Minnie runs.	Emma shells peas.
William laughs.	Pine-trees bear cones.
Bees make wax.	Reindeer draw sledges.
The baby smiles.	Julia waters the plants.
Rushes grow tall.	Woodpeckers eat insects.
The boat has oars.	The men are making hay

## 40. USE OF WOVE AND WOVEN.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one of the words wove, or woven.

	The	carpet	is		The	straws	were		toget	her.
						basket.				
ch	inery.	Sara	ah -	a	mat.	I saw	colored	l yarn		into
a	bird's	nest.	H	ow bea	utifully	the cl	oth is		The	mat
is		- evenl	у.							

#### 41. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



You may write a story suggested by this picture, using the following

Points.—Plant; hot climates; tall; slender; raised from cuttings; every year; useful; juice in stalk;

pressed out; sugar-mill; boiled; evaporated: molasses; sugar.

## 42. FORMING SENTENCES WITH TRAN-SITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

You may select twenty verbs from your Reader, and write them in a column.

Write the letters t v after each transitive verb, and i v after each intransitive verb.

You may form sentences, containing the verbs you have written.

#### 43. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



THE BAT.

You may tell something about bats, using the following

Points.—Body like a mouse; large ears; strong, large wings; has claws on its wings; for what used; flies rapidly; likes darkness; sleeps all day; head downward; hangs; how; eats insects and fruits; has four large front teeth; other teeth small; is found in hollow trees, caves, under the roofs of

houses, and in old buildings.

#### 44. LIMITING NOUNS.

- 1. The author, Charles Dickens, wrote David Copperfield.
- 2. Charles Dickens, the author, wrote David Copperfield.

What is the subject of the first sentence?

What is the subject of the second sentence?

What words in the first sentence explain what author wrote David Copperfield?

What words in the second sentence explain what Charles Dickens was?

What part of speech is author?

What part of speech is Charles Dickens?

The words Charles Dickens, in the first sentence, and author, in the second sentence, are explaining nouns.

A noun is often used to explain another noun.

Notice commas inclosing Charles Dickens, in first sentence, and the author, in second sentence.

Explaining nouns are set off by commas.

#### EXERCISE.

Explain the sentences given below.

Model.—Tennyson, the poet, wrote Locksley Hall.

Tennyson is the subject, because it is that about which something is said; wrote Locksley Hall, is the predicate, because it is that which is said of the subject; wrote is the verb limited by the object complement Locksley Hall; poet is a noun, explaining the noun Tennyson.

Hudson, the navigator, discovered the Hudson River. Long-fellow, the poet, wrote Evangeline. Washington Irving, the author, wrote the Sketch Book. Brown, the fisherman, was drowned. Richards, the carpenter, built an arbor.

## 48. FORMING SENTENCES WITH EXPLAINING NOUNS.

You may form ten sentences, using the words given below, as explaining nouns. Explain each sentence. Punctuate as in model, page 29.

tailor	hatter	farmer	teacher
judge	grocer	banker	merchant
editor	lawyer	weaver	conductor

#### 46. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



You may write ten questions suggested by this picture. Answer the questions, and connect the answers in the form of a story.

### 47. USE OF DONE AND DID.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one of the words done or did.

I — the greater part of it. The dress is — . Who — this? The carpenter has — his work well. Who said I — that? He has — his work well. The gardener has — his work. Albert — it himself. I — three exercises. Joseph — his example.

#### 48. COMPLEMENTS.

Ants eat insects. Booth is an actor. Deer are graceful. Horses draw loads. Owls are night birds. Camels bear burdens.
William is a surveyor.
Boats carry passengers.
Quicksands are dangerous.
The grizzly bear is savage.

You may explain each sentence given above, copying the object complements, noun complements, and adjective complements, in separate columns.

#### EXERCISE.

You may write sentences, each containing one of the following words, used as an object complement:

box wood stove sled pencil

Write sentences, each containing one of the following words, used as a noun complement:

birds carts horses trees rocks

Write sentences, each containing one of the following words, used as an adjective complement:

slender stout fine high round

## 49. CHANGING COMPLEMENTS TO EXPLAINING NOUNS.

- 1. Eli Whitney was a farmer's son.
- 2. Eli Whitney, a farmer's son, invented the cotton-gin.

Note.—The words limit and modify, will be used hereafter as meaning the same.

What kind of a complement is farmer's son, in the first sentence?

In what way are the nouns, farmer's son, used in the second sentence?

A noun complement may become an explaining noun.

#### EXERCISE.

In the groups of sentences given below, tell whether the second noun is used as a complement, or as an explaining noun. Explain the complements and the explaining nouns.

Washington was a Virginian.

Washington, the Virginian, was the first president.

Carl was an art student.

Carl, the art student, won a gold medal.

Lafayette was a Frenchman.

Lafayette, the Frenchman, visited America.

Charles Sumner was a statesman.

Charles Sumner, the statesman, was a lawyer.

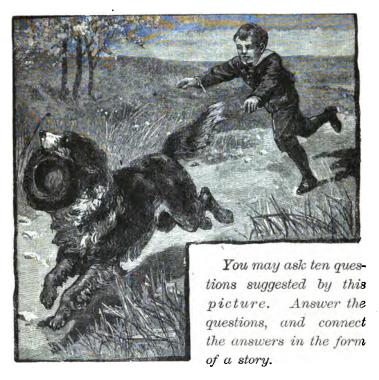
Edward Hitchcock was a geologist.

Edward Hitchcock, the geologist, was an author.

William Cullen Bryant was a poet.

William Cullen Bryant, the poet, wrote "Thanatopsis."

### BO. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



## B1. USE OF RODE AND RIDDEN.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one or both of the words rode or ridden.

Have you —— far to-day. Albert —— in the cars when he could have —— in a carriage. I ought to have ——. He asked me if I had ——. They —— to the mill. You should have ——. We ——— to the village. I should like to have ——. Mary has ——— to-day.

## **52. FORMING SENTENCES WITH COMPLE-**MENTS AND EXPLAINING NOUNS

You may form sentences, using the words given below, as complements, and as explaining nouns.

Example.—James White is a merchant

James White, the merchant, has gone to Europe.

girl	lawyer	German	Frenchman
boy	scholar	merchant	mail-carrier
doctor	painter	book-seller	dress-maker

#### B3. USE OF OUGHT TO AND SHOULD.

You may write the sentences given below, supplying in each, the words ought to, or should.

The word ought denotes an obligation, or duty; should denotes a fitness, or expediency.

California —— have the medal as a fruit state.	We
be clean and neat. You ——— go to-day. Mary	go
home now. Children —— be obedient. He ——	- go, and
he —— be made to go at once.	

### 84, USE OF STOLE AND STOLEN.

You may write the sentences given below, supplying in each, one of the words stole, or stolen.

CAUTION.—Be careful to use the proper word. Stole is often incorrectly used for stolen.

The coat has been ———. Who do you think ——— it?	ſу
lunch was? How do you know that it was?	Ι
never in my life. Joseph's satchel has been The	at
is the person who the grapes. His hat has been	—.

#### 88. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



EVA AND BLIND HARRY.

What is this little girl doing?

What seems to be the matter with the little boy's eyes?

Where are the children sitting?

To what are they listening?

Where do you think the birds are?

Who do you think it is that is looking at the children?

You may ask four other questions suggested by this picture. Answer the questions, and connect the answers in the form of a story.

## 86. EXPLAINING NOUNS, AND NOUN COMPLEMENTS.

- 1. Bryant was a poet.
- 2. Bryant, the poet, was an editor.
- 3. The poet, Bryant, was an editor.

What is the **subject** of the first sentence?—what of the second?—what of the third?

What is the noun **poet** in the first sentence?—what in the second?—what in the third?

#### EXERCISE.

You may point out, in the following sentences, the explaining nouns, and the complements.

Robert Burns was a poet. Burns, the poet, was a farmer. The poet, Burns, was a farmer.

Pestalozzi was a teacher. Pestalozzi, the teacher, was a reformer.

The teacher, Pestalozzi, was a reformer.

Edison is an inventor.

Edison, the inventor, improved the electric light. The inventor, Edison, improved the electric light.

Bancroft is a historian.

Bancroft, the historian, is an author.

The historian, Bancroft, is an author.

#### EXERCISE.

You may write sentences, using the following names as explaining nouns:

Franklin.

Howe.

Fulton.

Morse.





You may ask ten questions suggested by this picture. Answer the questions, and connect the answers in the form of a story.

## 88. USING ADJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS.

You may form sentences, using in each, one or more of the following adjectives, as adjective complements:

$\mathbf{red}$	large	round	$\mathbf{smooth}$
fine	small	young	common
rare	white	square	excellent
blue	rough	twisted	beautiful

### .59. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



You may ask five questions suggested by this picture. Answer the questions, and write a description of birds, using the following

Points.—Small bodies; large wings; strong wings; light bones; keen sight; claws; of what use; colors of feathers; different songs; love for young.

#### 60. USE OF WAS AND WERE.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, the words was or were.

Misses Ella, Jennie, and Sarah Lee —— invited. The
people invited to vote. The ashes put into the
barrel. The audience — much pleased. When — you
in the city? If I you, I should go. I there,
you? — the clothes new? The jury — not able
to agree. The chimneys tall and large. A committee
of three appointed you on your way down town?
The flock of sheep —— scattered. I wish I —— in Florida.
How I wish I —— an artist. I —— away from the city
yesterday.

#### 61. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES.

to	off	from	except
at	for	$\mathbf{amid}$	during
of	into	along	among
in	over	$\operatorname{down}$	around
on	near	about	against
by	after	above	beneath

After each of these prepositions, you may write a noun or a pronoun.

Examples.—Against them. From the city.

About the farm. Above the house.

A preposition with the noun or pronoun following, is called a prepositional phrase.

You may compose sentences, using in each, one or more of the **prepositional phrases** you have written.

#### EXERCISE.

1. He walked rapidly. 2. He walked with rapidity.

What word in the first sentence modifies the verb walked?

What does the prepositional phrase, with rapidity, modify?

Compose ten sentences containing prepositional phrases.

In the sentences you have written, you may tell what each one of the prepositional phrases limits.

#### 62. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



Compare the boats in these pictures: tell in what ways they are alike; in what ways they are different.



ALICE AND HER BROTHER.

You may ask ten questions suggested by this picture. Answer the questions, and connect the answers in the form of a story.

## 63. USE OF LAYING AND LYING.

You may write the sentences given below, supplying in each, one of the words laying or lying.

Notice which one of these words requires an object complement.

I saw six ships —— at anchor. The dust is —— upon the leaves. The —— of the Atlantic cable was a success. The leaves are —— on the grass. We are —— our plans for the summer. Robbers were —— in wait for him. The valley is —— in shadow. A book is —— on the table.

# 64. CHANGING POSSESSIVE NOUNS TO PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES.

- 1. California's great trees are cedar.
- 2. The great trees of California are cedar.

What are the modifiers of the subject in the first sentence?

What words in the second sentence mean the same as California's in the first sentence?

#### EXERCISE.

Rewrite each of the sentences given below, changing the possessive nouns to prepositional phrases, and supplying such other words as may be necessary. Explain each sentence, subject, predicate, and limiting-word.

Example.—Longfellow's poems are household words.

The poems of Longfellow are household words.

The Hudson's banks are romantic. The bluebird's arrival is a sign of spring. Australia's eastern coast is rugged. Elephants' tusks are ivory. Rivers' beds are often sandy. Washington's home was Mount Vernon. The rose's petals are used in making a perfume. Deer's hoofs are divided into two parts.

## 68. USE OF SITTING AND SETTING.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one of the words sitting or setting.

A mai	n is	on the porch	h. James	is	out tor	nato-
plants.	The sun is	just	I am —	—— still.	I am	tired
of	so still.	She is	near the te	able. Th	e ——	- sun
looks red	. Ella is	under	r a tree in	the yard.		

## EXERCISES IN DIAGRAMMING.

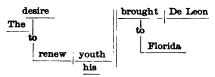
## EXERCISES IN DIAGRAMMING.

Exercise strengthens.
Exercise strengthens
Wolfe Captured Quebec.
Wolfe _  captured _ Quebec
FIREMEN ARE COURAGEOUS.
Firemen   are   courageous
LA FAYETTE AND KOSCIUSKO AIDED AMERICA.
La Fayette
and aided America
La Fayette   aided   America   Kosciusko
SUNSHINE PURIFIES AND INVIGORATES.
purifies
Sunshine and invigorates
invigorates
in Agriculture
PETER STUYVESANT WAS BRAVE BUT STUBBORN.
stubborn
stubborn but
Peter Stuyvesant was brave
THE GALLANT GREEN MOUNTAIN BOYS FOUGHT VERY BRAVELY.
Green Mountain Boys fought
The gallant bravely very
very
ALEXANDER'S WAR-HORSE, BUCEPHALUS, WAS AFRAID OF HIS SHADOW.
Alexander's
war-horse was afraid Alexander's of Bucephalus
snadow
<u>his</u>
MENENDEZ. INVADING FLORIDA, FOUNDED St. AUGUSTINE.
founded St. Augustine
Menendez founded St. Augustine invading Florida
Note.—The participle, invading, represents an assumed action

#### EXERCISES IN DIAGRAMMING.

TO AVOID THE ATTACK WAS IMPOSSIBLE.

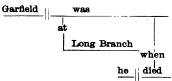
THE DESIRE TO RENEW HIS YOUTH, BROUGHT DE LEON TO FLORIDA.



THE FIRST ENGLISH NAVIGATOR THAT REACHED AMERICA WAS JOHN CABOT.

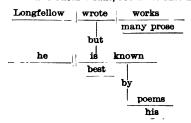


GARFIELD WAS AT LONG BRANCH WHEN HE DIED.



THAT WILLIAM TELL EVER EXISTED IS DISPUTED.

Longfellow wrote many prose works, but he is best known by his poems,



#### 66. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.

What is this boy doing? How many fish has he caught?

Where do you think he lives?

Who lives with him?
To whom will he carry
his fish?

Ask ten other questions about this picture. Answer the questions, and connect the answers in the form of a story.



## 67. CHANGING PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES TO POSSESSIVE NOUNS.

You may rewrite the sentences given below, changing the **prepositional phrases** to **possessive nouns.** Diagram each sentence, and explain the possessive nouns.

The first settlers of New York were traders from Holland. The composer of the Star Spangled Banner was Francis S. Key. The father of Columbus was a wool-comber. The dry-docks of Brooklyn are the finest in America. The tides of London rise eighteen feet. The home of the condor is in the Andes. The compass of the mariner directs him at sea. The best friend of the farmer is the robin. The food of the robin is worms and insects.

## 68. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



You may ask ten questions suggested by this picture. Answer the questions, and connect the answers in the form of a story.

## 69. USE OF SITS AND SETS.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, the words sits or sets.

The wild duck —— on her nest. She —— the pitcher on the table. Any one who —— in a draft may take cold. The blackbird —— on her eggs three weeks. See! the sun —— in a bank of clouds! Court —— to-day. The gardener —— on a box while he —— out the plants.

#### 70. CONTRACTIONS.

You're going.
 I'm not going.
 Aren't you going?
 I have not the book.

You are going.
I am not going?
Are you not going?
I have not the book.

In how many ways is the first sentence written?

Instead of the words I am, what is written in the second sentence?

Instead of the words are not, what is written in the third sentence?

What letter is omitted when the words you are are contracted to you're?—when the words I am are contracted to I'm?

How is the contraction of **have not**, written in the fourth sentence? What letter is omitted?

What mark denotes the omission of the letter o?

When words are contracted in spelling, the omission of letters is indicated by an apostrophe (').

Don't, can't, won't, and shan't, are commonly written as single words.

The apostrophe is also used to denote the plurals of figures, letters, and signs.

Examples.—Mind your p's and q's.

Cross your t's and dot your i's.

Make your 8's and 3's accurately.

Be careful how you make your +'s and -'s.

CAUTION.—The contraction, don't, should never be used with the singular pronouns he, she, or it (unless preceded by if).

#### A LIST OF COMMON CONTRACTIONS.

I'd	I would	'twere	it were
I'll	I will	shan't	shall not
'tis	it is	hadn't	had not
I've	I have	you've	you have
he'd	he would	they're	they are
ne'er	never	thou'rt	thou art
can't	can not	'gainst	against
don't	do not	mayn't	may not
$\mathbf{won't}$	will not	mongst	amongst
'twill	it will	couldn't	could not
'twas	it was	oughtn't	ought not
you'll	you will	wouldn't	would not
hasn't	has not	shouldn't	should not

#### EXERCISE.

The pupil may write from memory as many sentences as possible, containing the contractions already given.

## 71. USE OF MORE AND MOST.

You may write the sentences given below, supplying the words more or most.

The word more implies being greater in any way, increased, or superior; most implies being greatest in number, excelling in quantity, or superior to all others.

The ——— wealthy people are not always the ———— l	appy.
Some children are ——studious than others. I am now	
willing to go. Charles is ——— generous than James.	Henry
is a —— faithful boy than his brother. He can be	
active if he chooses. I shall be —— happy to see you.	This
orange is — juicy than that one.	

## 72. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



Pupils may write a story suggested by these two pictures.



#### 73. COMPOUND SUBJECTS.

1. Eagles and condors eat flesh. 2. He and I expect to go.

Name the subjects in these sentences.

What word connects eagles and condors?

What word connects he and I?

What part of speech is and?

A subject made up of two or more nouns or pronouns connected by a conjunction, is called a compound subject.

Diagram and explain the following sentences:

Oranges and bananas are kinds of fruit. Leopards and tigers are flesh-eaters. Cassia and cinnamon are kinds of bark. Firs and hemlocks are evergreen trees. Cotton and tobacco are plants. Ants and bees are insects.

## EXERCISE.

You may compose ten sentences like those given above. Diagram and explain each.

## 74. COMPOUND PREDICATES.

Fruit ripens and falls.

How many verbs are there in this sentence?

When a predicate contains two or more verbs connected by a conjunction, it is called a compound predicate.

You may diagram and explain each of the following sentences. Frogs swim and hop. Some grasshoppers jump and fly. Some bears swim and climb. Parrots talk and whistle. Monkeys scream and chatter. Water ripples and roars. Stars shine and twinkle. Geese swim and dive.

#### EXERCISE.

You may compose, diagram, and explain ten sentences like those given above. (Use models given in sections 114, 120, and 110.)





You may write a description of this picture, using the following

Points.—Terrier; puppies; rat; floor; caught; smell; frightened; rats; looks; watching; ears; straight.

#### 76. COMPOUND SENTENCES.

1. Peacocks scream.

2. Hens cackle.

You may unite these sentences, using a conjunction, as and or but.

In the same manner, you may connect the following sentences.

Hens walk.

Mice nibble.

Wood burns. Stars twinkle.

Sparrows chirp.

Roses have thorns.

Ducks swim.

Rats gnaw.

Asbestus will not burn.

Diamonds sparkle.

Canaries sing.

Locust-trees have spines.

Two sentences, united by a conjunction like and or but, form what is called a compound sentence.

You may write ten compound sentences. Explain each.

### 77. DIAGRAMMING SENTENCES.

Pupils may diagram and explain the following sentences.

De Soto died, and his men buried him in the Mississippi River. We looked for a heavy shower, for the clouds were very dark. Lucy went into the garden for roses, but they had all been picked. I hope Nellie will call, for I should like to go with her. The children went to the tree for some cherries, but the birds had taken them all. Emma could not read the story to me, because James had taken away the book. The boatman lowered the sail, for he saw a storm coming on. We looked out at the window, and we saw the moon shining on the lake.

# 78. FORMING SENTENCES CONTAINING THE CONJUNCTIONS AND, BUT, ETC.

You may form ten sentences, each containing one of the conjunctions and, but, if, or or. Explain each sentence.





You may describe this picture, using the following

Points.—Mary; Charles; Speckle; happy; nest; little chickens; six; coop; eat; water; carry; apron; barn; hay; smiles.

## 80. USE OF RAISE, RISE, ROSE, RISEN.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one of the words raise, rise, rose, or risen.

The river has ——— a great deal. I saw the sun ———— this
morning. I can not —— this window. The sun —— at
five this morning. The sun has I wish you would
from the floor. Has the dough - ? It will not
At six this morning. I as soon
as you called me. I would rather not I should have
earlier. At what time did you?

## 81. ACTIVE FORMS CHANGED TO PASSIVE FORMS.

1. The men built the fort. 2. The fort was built by the men.

Do these sentences express the same fact?

What is the verb in the first sentence? Is it transitive or intransitive?

What is the verb in the second sentence?

What word is the **object complement** in the first sentence?

What part of the second sentence is the word fort? What kind of a phrase is by the men?

A passive verb is one whose subject may be the object complement of its active form.

Passive.—The ship was navigated by the captain.

Active.—The captain navigated the ship. (Object complement.)

When the object complement in one sentence, becomes a subject in another sentence expressing

the same thought, the verb is changed from the active form to the passive form.

Explanation.—Built, in the first sentence has the active form; fort is the object complement.

Fort is the subject of the second sentence, and men is a part of a prepositional phrase.

Only verbs which are transitive can have passive forms.

You may tell which of the following sentences contain active forms, and which passive forms. Explain why each of the forms used is active or passive.

The president wrote the message. Professor Morse planned the Atlantic Telegraph. The emperor built the palace. The wind tore the flag. His father gave William the watch. The message was written by the president. The Atlantic Telegraph was planned by Professor Morse. The palace was built by the emperor. The flag was torn by the wind. The watch was given to William by his father. That nest was made by robins.

## 82. USE OF CHOOSE, CHOSE, AND CHOSEN.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one of the words choose, chose, or chosen.

I		the re	d apple	. An	nerica —		freedo	m of tl	ought.
I	– to	go alo	ne. G	eorge	was	fi	irst.	Sarah	herself
	$\mathbf{the}$	dress.	I sho	ould ha	ve been		V	Vill you	. ———
first ?	You	ı have		a good	pattern	. н	e him	self —	the
horse.									





You may ask ten questions suggested by this picture. Answer the questions, and connect the answers in the form of a story.

# 84. FORMING SENTENCES WITH ACTIVE VERBS.

You may form sentences, containing the following active forms:

eat	saw	kept	burst
cut	sold	gave	made
fed	paid	rung	know
left	hear-	draw	shook
had	fling	drive	forsake

55

Examples.—Myra saw her brother.

The river burst its banks.

You may rewrite the sentences you have written, changing each verb to the passive form.

Examples.—Her brother was seen by Myra.

Its banks were burst by the river.

## 88. CHANGING PASSIVE FORMS TO ACTIVE FORMS.

You may rewrite the sentences given below, changing the **passive forms** to active forms, and active forms to passive forms. Diagram each sentence, and explain the verb forms.

The Gulf of St. Lawrence was discovered by Cartier. Virginia was named by Sir Walter Raleigh. Washington crossed the Delaware on Christmas night. Louisiana was named by La Salle. Wellington conquered Napoleon at Waterloo. Burns wrote the "Cotter's Saturday Night." Prince Bonaparte was slain by the Zulus. The combined naval forces of France and Spain were conquered by Nelson.

## 86. USE OF REFER, REFERRED; ALLUDE, ALLUDED.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one of the words refer, referred, allude, or alluded.

To whom do you ——? I —— to our friend.	to
the dictionary. I only —— to it. The consul —	— to the
report. Did you —— to that merchant? I said	he
to me. I —— to the fact of his being present.	The lady
was —— to the consul.	

## 87. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.

Pupils may describe the brown bear and the polar bear, using the following



BROWN BEAR.

Points.—Large, heavy animal; brown or blackish fur; large flat feet; long claws; five toes on each foot; very short tail; eats flesh and vegetables; prefers vegetable food; long face; pointed mouth; fore legs longer; swims; climbs; sometimes fierce;

long fur; used for rugs; caps.

Very fierce; flat head; heavy body; longer neck; smooth white fur; lives near the sea; very cold climates; catches seals; on ice; in water; eats eggs and berries; very fond of its young.



POLAR BEAR.

# 88. THE CLAUSE DEFINED. CLAUSE CONTAINING WHO.

1. Honest men generally succeed.

What word modifies men?

2. Men who are honest generally succeed.

Does the second sentence mean the same as the first sentence?

What word does who are honest limit? To what does who refer?
What is the predicate of who?
Name the parts this modifier contains.

A modifier containing a subject and predicate is called a clause.

A sentence containing a clause is called a complex sentence.

#### EXERCISE.

Point out the clauses in the sentences given below, and tell what each modifies. Diagram each.

Model.—De Foe, who wrote Robinson Crusoe, was an Englishman.

Who wrote Robinson Crusoe, is a clause, modifying the noun De Foe.

People who live in Lapland, are called Lapps. Napoleon, who was defeated at Waterloo, was banished to St. Helena. Harvey, who discovered the circulation of the blood, was an Englishman. Columbus, who made four voyages to the New World, died in Spain. Roger Williams, who was the founder of Rhode Island, named the city of Providence. William Penn, who founded Philadelphia, belonged to the Society of Friends. People who live by fishing, are called fishermen.

### 89. FORMING COMPLEX SENTENCES.

You may compose complex sentences, containing the clauses given below. Explain each sentence.

 who played ball.	— who wrote me a letter.
 who came home.	—— who recited a selection.
 who saw the circus.	who studied his lessons.
 who went to Boston.	- who went to the sca-side

#### 90. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



THE LION.

Pupils may write a description of a lion, using the following

Points.—Largest of flesh-eating animals; yellowish color; lighter underneath; male with heavy mane; shaggy; long; strong animal; large head; bright, flashing eyes; sometimes eight feet in length from nose to tail; found chiefly in Africa; seeks its food at night.

## 91. USE OF BETWEEN AND AMONG.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one of the words between or among.

The fight was —— the French and the Prussians. That is a secret —— you and me. Tares grow —— the wheat. It rests —— the officers and the crew. —— the heroes of the Revolution stands Jasper. Harmony exists —— the English and American nations. —— the mountains of Switzerland is Mount Blanc.

### 92. THE CLAUSE CONTAINING WHOSE.

The ship rudder | was broken whose has been brought into port.

What ship has been brought into port? What clause modifies ship? What is the subject of the clause? What word modifies rudder?

You may diagram the following sentences:

The Hudson, whose banks are romantic, is much visited. The cactus, whose petals were opening, has blossomed. The trumpet-vine, whose flowers are showy, grows wild in Virginia. The Susquehanna, whose waters are shallow, is not navigable. Primroses, whose flowers are yellow, blossom early. Sugarbeets, whose juice is sweet, furnish sugar. The beaver, whose fur is thick, is a valuable animal. Florida, whose climate is mild, is much visited in cold weather. The wild rose, whose petals are single, is very fragrant.

#### EXERCISE.

You may compose complex sentences, containing the clauses given below. Explain each sentence.

Model.—George, whose book was lost, told me about it.

Whose book was lost is a clause, modifying George.

Book is the subject of the clause, and is modified by the pronoun whose.

whose book was lost whose dress was t	orn.
whose pencil has been found. — whose ship has l	been
wrecked. — whose house has been burned. — w	hose
mother has gone away.	

# 93. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.

THE BUFFALO. THE DEER.

You may describe this picture, comparing the buffalo and deer. Use the following

Points.—Larger animal: strong; heavy; wild;



strong; neavy; wha; herds; lives on the plains; horns, short, curved; tail long; mane thick; hair long and shaggy; angry eyes.

Smaller animal: slender; gentle; smooth

hair; horns, large and branching; tail short; easily tamed; mild eyes.

## 94. THE CLAUSE CONTAINING WHOM.

Children

are obedient.

whom we love most,

What does the clause, whom we love most, modify?

You may point out the clauses in the following sentences, and tell what each one modifics.

The little girl, whom all call pretty, is vain. The man whom we saw, was an actor. Thomas, whom we all respect, is an honest man. The gardener whom we expected, has come. The boys whom we saw, were Italians. The children whom we heard sing, were brothers. The lecturer whom we heard last night, has left the city. The sailors whom we knew, sailed this morning.

## 98. LANGUAGE EXERCISES.



You may ask ten questions suggested by this picture. Answer the questions, and connect the answers in the form of a story.

You may compare these two dogs, and write a description of them, using the following

Points.—Different in size; each dog's appearance; different color; the habits of each dog; in what ways they are useful; their dispositions; gentle; cross; countries each comes from; found in this country.



## 96. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.

You may write a description of a camel, using the following

Points. — Very large; gentle; bears burdens; en-



THE CAMEL.

dures great heat; lives on little food and water, crossing the desert; is supplied with food from hump; hump composed of fat; back-bone of camel straight;

thick padded feet, for walking in hot sand; thick pads on knees and chest, for lying on hot sand; sharp wedge-shaped teeth; very long eyelashes; can close nostrils; stomach and paunch furnished with cells for holding water; lives thirty or forty years.

## 97. THE CLAUSE CONTAINING WHICH.

The river is not navigable. which is shallow,

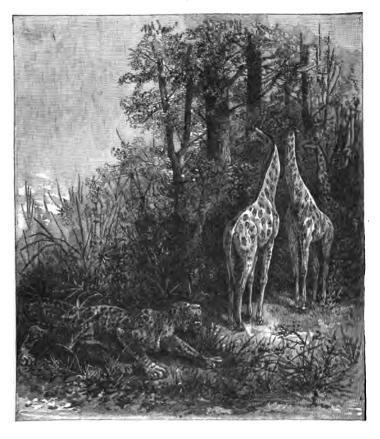
What does the clause, which is shallow, modify?

You may explain the sentences given below. Point out the clauses, and tell what each one modifies.

The book which I sent for, was a history. The stone which we saw, was red granite. The letter which I received, was from my brother. Those apples which you bought, were very

targe. The building which we saw, was a church. The oranges which come from Florida, are large.

## 98. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



You may ask ten questions suggested by this picture. Answer the questions, and connect the answers in the form of a story.

# 99. THE CLAUSE CONTAINING WHAT, AND COMPLEMENTS.

1. Pure air is healthful.

What kind of a complement is healthful?

2. James is a student.

What kind of a complement is student?

3. Pure air is what we want.

What kind of a complement is what we want?

#### EXERCISE.

You may diagram and explain the following sentences, pointing out the **complements**, and telling about each.

A wire is what carries the message. Steam is what moves the machinery. Showers are what we expect in spring. The "Life of Columbus" is what I sent for. Rain is what farmers desire. A hot sun is what makes Indian-corn grow.

## 100. CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

Who, whose, whom, which, and that, are called conjunctive pronouns.

You may compose five sentences, containing the conjunctive pronoun who; five, containing whose; five, containing whom; five, containing what; five, containing which; five, containing that. Explain each sentence.

Who always represents persons.
Which represents animals or things.
That represents persons, animals, or things.
What represents things.

#### EXERCISE.

You may rewrite all the sentences in the last exercise, containing the conjunctive pronouns who and which, omitting those words, and using in their places the conjunctive pronoun that.

Examples.—This is the man who went away.

This is the man that went away.

This is the pencil which I bought.

This is the pencil that I bought.

Explain each sentence you have written.

#### 101. AN ADVERBIAL CLAUSE

- 1. The dew disappears rapidly.
- 2. The dew disappears when the sun shines.

What word does rapidly modify?

What word does the clause when the sun shines modify?

What word connects the sun shines with the dew disappears?

When is a conjunctive adverb.

#### EXERCISE.

You may explain the following sentences, telling what each clause modifies.

The wheels turn when the machinery is started. The force of steam increases when it is confined. The tea-kettle sings when the water grows hot. The snow melts when the sun shines. The birds return when the spring comes. The outside of a pitcher of ice-water becomes moist when the weather is warm. Fogs break away when the sun shines. The dew gathers when the night is cool.

#### EXERCISE.

You may compose ten complex sentences, containing the conjunctive adverb when. Explain each.

#### 102. OTHER CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

- 1. Jennie sews while her mother reads
- 2. Reuben catches the ball as it falls.

What word does the clause, while her mother reads, modify? What does as it falls modify?

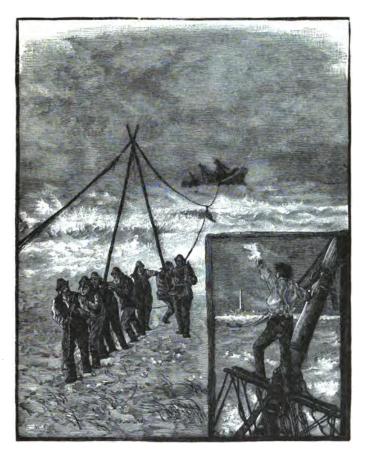
While, when, and as (in the sentences given above), are conjunctive adverbs.

You may diagram and explain the following sentences.

She studies as she sews. They admire while they look at it. The girls talk while they walk. George whistles while he works. Soldiers sometimes sleep while they march. James took Frank with him when he went into the woods. Eddie ran away when the gun was fired. The boatman sings as he rows. Boys often run and jump when on their way to school.

You may compose ten sentences, each one containing an adverbial clause, beginning with one of the conjunctive adverbs as, while, or when. Explain each sentence.

## 103. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



This ship seems to be in trouble;—what do you think is the matter? Where is the ship?
What is the man doing on the mast?
What does he see in the distance?

What will the people on the shore do? Do you think there are any other people on this ship?

You may ask five other questions suggested by this picture. Answer the questions, and connect the answers in the form of a story.

## 104. USE OF SEEM, SEEMS, AND APPEAR, APPEARS.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one of the words seem, seems, appear, or appears.

She —— to be satisfied. The dress —— to be new. The
day fine. Did she to be contented? The moon
over the hill. How did he to be? It to be
green. The man —— to be well pleased. I hope you will
well. I can well if I wish to. The storm
to be passing over. The sun —— between the clouds.

## 105. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



What kind of stalks has a pea? How does a pea climb? What kind of seed-vessel has it? Where do the seeds grow? Of what color are they? For what are they used?

Ask five other questions about this plant, Answer the questions, and connect the answers to form a description.

## 106. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



ROBINSON CRUSOE.

You may write a story suggested by this picture

#### 107. A NOUN CLAUSE,

1. The statement is true.

2. That the clouds are white is true.

What is the **subject** in the first sentence? What is the **subject** in the second sentence?

3. He said, "I am going home."

A direct quotation (as in the sentence just given), is set off by quotation marks.

What is the object complement in that sentence?

A clause used as a subject or as an object complement of a sentence, is called a noun clause.

That the clouds are white, in the second sentence, is a clause.

It is introduced by the conjunctive pronoun that.

The clause, "I am going home," in the third sentence, is the object complement of the verb said.

#### EXERCISE.

You may explain the following sentences, pointing out the noun clauses.

That the western country is fast filling up, is a fact. That white clover shows civilization, is true. That the soul is immortal, is an ancient doctrine. That Henry Clay was a true statesman, is acknowledged. That the cactus growing on the western plains shows a dry soil, is decided. That the buffalo is becoming extinct, is a truth.

# 108. FORMING SENTENCES WITH CLAUSES AS SUBJECTS AND OBJECTS.

You may compose sentences, containing the following clauses, used as subjects.

That New York is a large city. That the Mississippi is a very long river. That California produces beautiful fruit. That England is a powerful nation.

You may compose other sentences, using the same clauses as **object complements**.

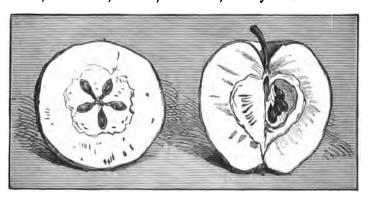
**Example.**—The geographies teach that the Mississippi is a very long river.

## 109. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



APPLE BLOSSOMS.

You may describe an apple-tree, telling about its trunk, branches, leaves, blossoms, and fruit.



THE APPLE.

Ask other questions, and write a description.

#### 110. THE CLAUSE CONTAINING WHERE,

It was in this place where I met my brother.

Where did I meet my brother?

What word does the clause, where I met my brother, limit?

Note.—The adverb where connects the clause which it introduces, with the word that the clause modifies, and itself modifies the verb in the clause. In the sentence given, where connects the clause with the noun place, and itself modifies the verb met.

You may diagram and explain the sentences given below. Point out the clauses. Tell what each one limits.

Kentucky is the state where Abraham Lincoln was born. Boston Harbor is the place where the tea was thrown overboard. Venice is the city where Marco Polo was born. Newport is the place where the old Round Tower stands. The Charter Oak was the tree where William Wadsworth hid the Connecticut charter. Elberon Cottage was the house where President Garfield died.

#### EXERCISE.

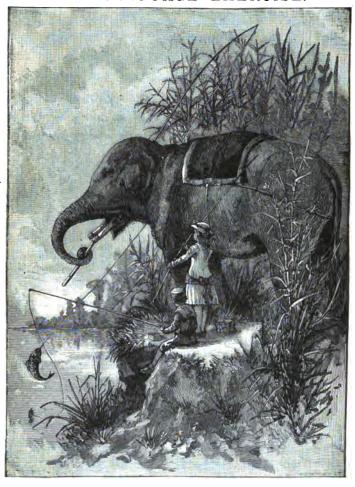
You may compose ten sentences, containing the conjunctive adverb where. Diagram and explain each sentence.

Model.—The house on the hill is where I live.

Where I live is a noun clause used as the complement of is. (Or, it may be said to modify the noun complement house understood.)

Where is an adverb used to connect the clause with the word it limits, and modifying the verb live.

## 111. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



You may ask ten questions suggested by this picture. Answer the questions, and connect the answers in the form of a story.

### 112. ACTIONS ASSUMED AND PREDICATED.

Running quickly, he stumbled and fell.

Who stumbled and fell?

What is the subject of the sentence?

What is the predicate?

What was he doing when he stumbled and fell? How many actions are mentioned in this sentence?

How many of these verbs are predicates?

Which verb is not a predicate?

Running is a verb, expressing an assumed action of he.

Verbs expressing assumed action, being, or state, are called participles.

REMARK.—Not all verbs are **predicates.** Participles are **verbs**, but not **predicates.** The same may be said of the **infinitive**.

#### EXERCISE.

You may explain the sentences given below, using the following, model.

Sentence.
 Subject.
 Predicate.
 Participle.

Why?

The child, playing by the river, fell into the water. My watch, losing time, was repaired by the jeweler. The sun, rising, scattered the fog. They went on board the vessel lying in the harbor. Catching the thief, they find the watch in his pocket. The balloon, rising rapidly, soon passed out of sight. A boy, riding an elephant, led the procession.

# A participle may consist of more than one word.

Examples.—having paid, having been asked.

A participle may have an adjective complement, an object complement, or other modifiers, in the same manner as other forms of the verb.

Explain each example given below.

Going to school. Listening to stories. Walking up hill. Climbing their fence. Rowing the boat. Having been forgiven Having been late. Looking over the lake. Reading the book. Picking the strawberries. Holding the reins. Having written the letter. Looking for a pin. Jumping from the carriage. Walking early in the morning. Closing their books.

# 113. CHANGING PREDICATED ACTIONS TO ASSUMED ACTIONS.

You may change the **predicated actions** given below, to assumed actions.

## Example.

- 1. Predicated action.—The horse is running.
- 2. Assumed action.—The horse running, broke the carriage.

Horses are pulling. The wind is blowing.

The bird is singing. The water is flowing.

The boy is studying. The tide is coming in.

You will notice that in changing an action from its predicated form, as in Example 1, to its assumed form, as in Example 2, a new predicate must be added.

#### EXERCISE.

You may change the sentences given below, so that there will be only one action predicated.

#### Example.

- 1. The man fired and ran away. Two actions predicated.
- The man, having fired, ran away. One action assumed and one predicated.

The boy climbed the tree and took the nest. The pilot took the helm and steered the ship. The clouds floated by and disappeared. The dog barked and ran away. The ships sailed out on the ocean and encountered a storm. Thomas skated on the pond and fell down. Willie played base-ball and broke his arm.

## 114. LANGUAGE EXERCISE.



THE OSTRICH.

You may write a description of an ostrich, using the following

Points.—Largest bird; strong; swift; ungraceful; seven to nine feet high; long legs; runs fast; two toes on each foot; very large, beautiful feathers; male ostrich, tail feathers black; wing feathers, white; female ostrich, feathers snow-white; can not fly; at night

sits on eggs; leaves them to the sun in the daytime; bears thirst; can run sixty miles in an hour; native of Africa and Arabia.

#### 118. THE INFINITIVE.

- 1. He rows (Why?) for exercise.
- 2. He rows (Why?) that he may exercise.
- 3. He rows (Why?) to exercise.

What is the difference in the meaning of these three sentences?

What does the prepositional phrase for exercise modify? What does the clause that he may exercise modify?

What two words in the third sentence are used to modify rows?

To exercise is a verb phrase called the infinitive. It is formed of the word to followed by a verb.

#### EXERCISE.

You may form sentences, using in each, one of the **infinitives** given below.

Examples.—We try to study. George likes to walk.

to run to play to walk to learn to row to hear to excel to study

An **infinitive** may have modifiers like other forms of the verb.

Examples —I hope to see him. I will try to come early.

#### EXERCISE.

You may diagram and explain the following sentences.

I like to sew.

We eat to live.

The children love to jump.

He likes to read.

Julia promised to call early.

#### 116. INFINITIVES AS SUBJECTS.

You may compose sentences, using the **infinitives** given below, as **subjects**.

## Example.—To row is healthful.

to eat	to rest	to visit	to sleep
to run	to play	to steal	to walk

#### 117. INFINITIVES AS OBJECTS.

Compose sentences, using the infinitives given below, as object complements.

### Example.—I desire to live.

to fall	to read	to jump	to dream
to give	to write	to drive	to choose

## 118. INFINITIVES WITHOUT TO.

- 1. I did not see him go.
- 2. He will let us know.
- 3. We dare not leave him.

After the verbs bid, dare, let, make, need, and see, the infinitive is used without the word to.

What **infinitive** is used in the first sentence? In the second sentence? In the third sentence?

#### EXERCISE.

You may form five sentences, using in each, one of the following infinitives, omitting to.

to go	to ride	to hear	to jump
to feel	to sing	to skate	to write

#### 119. REVIEW EXERCISE.

A Sentence is a thought expressed in words.

The principal parts of a Sentence are:

- I. The Subject—about which something is said.
- 2. The Predicate—what is said of the subject.

A Compound Sentence consists of two sentences united by a conjunction.

A Clause is a modifier, containing a subject and a predicate.

Clauses are joined to the words they limit:

- I. By the conjunctive pronouns, who, whose, whom, which, what, or that.
- 2. By the conjunctive adverbs, when, while, as, or where.

A Clause may be used as the subject of a sentence, or to complete the meaning of a verb.

A Complex Sentence consists of a sentence and a clause.

A **Compound Subject** consists of two (or more) subjects connected by a conjunction.

A Compound Predicate consists of two (or more) verbs connected by a conjunction.

A noun used to complete the meaning of a verb:

- 1. After forms of the verb be, (as, is, are, was, were,) is called a Noun Complement.
- 2. After other verbs, is called an **Object Complement.**

An adjective, used to complete the meaning of a verb, is called an Adjective Complement.

A noun may be used to limit another noun:

- I. To denote ownership or possession. It is then called a Possessive Noun.
- 2. To explain its meaning. It is then called an Explaining Noun.

A preposition with the noun or pronoun following, is called a **Prepositional Phrase**.

In meaning, verbs are of two kinds:

- I. A Transitive Verb is one which requires an object complement.
- 2. An Intransitive Verb is one which does not require an object complement.

In form, verbs are of two kinds:

- I. An Active Verb represents an action performed by its subject.
- 2. A Passive Verb has for a subject what would be the object complement of its active form.

Actions are either predicated or assumed:

- 1. Predicated, when both subject and predicate are used.
  - 2. Assumed, when a participle only is used.

The infinitive form of the verb may be used:

- I. As a modifier.
- 2. As the subject of a sentence.
- 3. As an object complement.

The Infinitive is used without to after certain verbs.

# PART III.

# THE PARTS OF SPEECH AND THEIR MODIFICATIONS.

### 120. KINDS OF NOUNS.

A noun is a name.

There are two kinds of nouns, proper and common.

A proper noun is the name of a particular person, place, or thing. A common noun is the name of any one of a class of objects.

Common nouns include the following special classes: abstract, collective, and verbal.

Names of qualities are called abstract nouns:

as, goodness, frailty, pride, kindness.

Names of many individuals together are called collective nouns:

as, meeting, committee, army, flock.

Names of assertions or actions are called verbal nouns:

as, the running, the sitting, the sleeping, the walking.

## Examples.

The meeting was ended.
 Goodness is not common.
 The walking continued for three days.

#### 121. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

Select the **proper**, **abstract**, **collective**, and **verbal nouns** in the following sentences:

The jury was out two hours. "There is nothing so kingly as kindness, and nothing so royal as truth." The overflowing of the Nile enriches the land. The flock of wild geese flew toward the north. "If I were not Alexander, I would be Diogenes." "John Gilpin was a citizen of credit and renown." "There is nothing worth the doing that it doesn't pay to try."

#### 122. GENDER.

Words that denote either persons or animals of the male sex, are said to be of the masculine gender.

Words that denote either persons or animals of the female sex, are said to be of the feminine gender.

Words that denote objects neither male nor female, are said to be of the neuter gender.

Feminine nouns are formed, by adding ess to the masculine: as,

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
lion	lioness	host	hostess
heir	heiress	giant	giantess
Jew	Jewess	tailor	tailoress
peer	peeress	priest	priestess
baron	baroness	count	countess
deacon	deaconess	author	authoress
prophet	prophetess	Quaker	Quakeress
dauphin	dauphiness	shepherd	shepherdess

By changing the termination er, or, or rer into ress: as,

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
tiger	tigress	actor	actress
hunter	huntress	sorcerer	sorceress
emperor	empress	songster	songstress
governor	governess	murderer	murderess
benefactor	benefactress	enchanter	enchantress

# By using different words: as,

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
lad	lass	boy	girl
son	daughter	earl	countess
ram	ewe	bull	cow
hart	roe	lord	lady
king	queen	man	woman
friar	nun	papa	mamma
beau	belle	uncle	$\mathbf{aunt}$
buck	doe	gander	goose
drake	duck	wizard	witch
father	mother	master	mistress
nephew	niece	brother	sister
husband	wife	bachelor	maid
landlord	landlady	gentleman	lady

## By prefixing another word: as,

Masculine.	Feminine.
male-child	female-child
man-servant	maid-servant

Note.—Some nouns may be applied to either sex: as, friend, parent. Such nouns are usually said to be of the common gender.

## 123. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

In each of the following sentences, change the words italicized from the feminine to the masculine, or from the masculine to the feminine, and make such other changes as the sense requires:

We visited the emperor. His niece is visiting him. The lioness killed her master. My aunt gave her sister a doe. The shepherd had a small flock. The emperor gave up the battle. We had a goose and a duck for dinner. The story of the giant interested the boy.

#### .124. NUMBER.

Nouns and pronouns meaning but one, are said to be in the singular number.

Nouns and pronouns meaning more than one, are said to be in the plural number.

The **plural** of **nouns** may be formed: By adding **s** to the **singular**:

as, fences, rivers.

By adding es to the singular when it ends in s, ch, sh, or x:

as, taxes, churches, wishes, classes.

By changing y of the **singular** to i, and adding es, when the singular ends in y preceded by a consonant:

as, armies, berries, fancies.

By changing f or fe into v or ve and adding s or es:

as, knives, wolves.

By changing the vowel or vowels of the singular: as, man, men; foot, feet; tooth, teeth.

Some nouns distinguished by quantity instead of number have no plural:

as, gold, silver, tea, pride.

Some nouns have no singular:

as, bellows, scissors, ashes, tongs, clothes.

Some nouns are the same in both numbers:

as, sheep, deer, swine, species.

Words composed of a noun and the adjective full, have the regular plural:

as, pailful, pailfuls; handful, handfuls; spoonful, spoonfuls.

Words composed of a noun and an adjective have usually the plural ending added to the noun:

as, knight-errant, knights-errant; court-martial, courts-martial.

Words composed of two nouns have the regular plural:

as, tide-waiter, tide-waiters.

A few compound words vary both parts:

as, man-servant, men-servants.

Words composed of two nouns connected by a preposition have the plural ending added to the first word:

as, sister-in-law, sisters-in-law.

Letters, figures, and other characters are made plural by adding the apostrophe and s:

as, three 2's, five b's.

Many words from foreign languages retain, for a time, their original plural:

as, analysis, analyses; radius, radii; datum, data; vertebra, vertebræ.

Collective nouns are treated as plural when the individuals in the collection are thought of, and as singular when the collection as a whole is thought of.

Some nouns have two plurals differing in meaning:

as, brother { brothers, of the same family. brethren, of the same society. index { indexes, tables of reference. indices, signs in algebra. genius { geniuses, applied to human beings. genii, applied to spiritual beings. penny { pence. } pennies, pieces of coin.

The number of a noun may be determined not only by its form, but also by the verb, the adjective, and the pronoun used in connection with it.

## 125. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

In each of the following sentences, substitute the **plural** for the **singular**, and the **singular** for the **plural**, and make such other changes as the sense requires:

Have you seen the fox? Has your brother come? The book is on the shelf. The mouse frightened the child. He brought a wagon-load of sod. The solo was sung by Miss Smith. Please give me a spoonful of sugar. There were seven bushes in the yard. The man-servant delivered the package. We have read two cantos of "The Lady of the Lake."

#### 126. PERSON

That use of the noun or pronoun which denotes the speaker, the one spoken to, or the one spoken of, is called person.

A word representing the one speaking, is said to be in the first person.

A word representing the one spoken to, is said to be in the second person.

A word representing that which is spoken of, is said to be in the third person.

## Examples.

- 1. I have written many letters.
- 2. You, Mary, may come to me.
- 3. Albert, will you return to-morrow?
- 4. He has bought the horse.

#### 127. CASE.

Case is a term used to denote the relation which a noun or pronoun sustains to some other word in the sentence.

There are three cases, the nominative, the possessive, and the objective.

#### Nominative Case.

The subject of a sentence, and a noun or pronoun complement, are said to be in the nominative case.

## Examples.

- 1. The fish are caught. 2. James is a physician.
  - 3. That man is he.

A noun or pronoun used Independently, is said to be in the nominative case:

as, William, the affair demands your attention.

Possessive Case.

Nouns and pronouns denoting possession, are said to be in the possessive case.

## Examples.

1. John's book is here. 2. My horse has run away.

The possessive case singular of nouns not ending in s, is regularly formed by adding an apostrophe and s to the noun; when the noun ends in s, the apostrophe only is added:

as, Mary's, Henry's, James'.

When the plural ends in **s**, the apostrophe only is added:

as, books', boys'.

When the plural does not end in s, the possessive is formed by adding the apostrophe and s, as in the singular:

as, woman's, women's.

Nouns ending ss or nce, generally take the apostrophe only:

as, "for goodness' sake," "for conscience' sake."

Where there is more than one noun in the possessive case referring to the same thing, the sign of the possessive is added to the last only:

as, He bought the tea at Smith & Brown's grocery.

Where the nouns refer to different things, the sign of the possessive is added to each:

as, I refer to Webster's and Worcester's Dictionaries.

A possessive phrase has the sign at the end:

as, Somebody else's book; Czar of Russia's command.

In such expressions as, "We went to Wilson's, the baker," or "We went to Wilson, the baker's," the **possessive sign** may be added to either noun, but not to both.

The relation of possession may be expressed not only by ('s), but by of, and such phrases as property of, belonging to, etc.

The possessive sign ('s) is confined chiefly to the names of persons, animals, and things personified.

#### Objective Case.

A noun or pronoun used as an object complement, or following a preposition in a phrase, is said to be in the objective case.

## Examples.

The sun enlivens the earth.
 The sailors saved the ships.
 Moisture is carried through the air.

A noun or pronoun used as explanatory modifier, is in the same case as the word explained, or is by apposition in the same case:

as, We received the book from Dr. Fuller, our minister.

A noun or pronoun used as attribute complement of a participle or infinitive, is in the same case as the word to which it relates:

as, We all acknowledge Lincoln to have been a great man.

Verbs of asking, teaching, and a few others, are said to have two objects,—one of the person (indirect object), the other of the thing (direct object):

as, She asked me three questions.

Note.—The frequency of this construction in English has made it seem best to give up the old method of parsing the personal object as governed by a preposition understood. In the example given above, the preposition of would formerly have been supplied before me.

The construction is similar after certain verbs, when one of the objects is an infinitive or a verbal noun:

as, I saw her fall.

## 128. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

Write the following sentences, putting the italicized nouns in the possessive case, and making such other changes as the sense requires:

He had the eye of an eagle. The books belong to the man. This is the tomb of Shakespeare. "But the sweet face of Lucy Gray will never more be seen." The names of all the men were taken. Cloaks suitable for children were sold by him. We have read many stories written by Dickens. He visited the home of Miller and White on South street.

## 129. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Pronouns that by their form indicate whether they are first, second, or third persons, are called personal pronouns.

#### Examples.

you we he they

## 130. FORMS OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

#### First Person, I.

SING	ULAR.		PLURAL.
Nom.	I	Nom.	we
Poss.	my or mine	Poss.	our or ours
Obi.	me	Obj.	us

#### Second Person-Common Form-You.

DIM	TULIALIS.			I DUMAD.
Nom.	you	_	Nom.	you
Poss.	your or yours		Poss.	your or yours
Obi.	vou		Obi.	vou

#### Second Person-Old or Solemn Form-Thou.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.		
Nom.	thou	Nom.	ye or you	
Poss.	thy or thine	Poss.	your or yours	
Obj.	thee	Obj.	you	

#### Third Person-He, She, It-Their.

SINGULAR.				PLURAL.	
	Mas.	Fem.	Neut.		Common.
Nom.	he	she	it		$\mathbf{they}$
Poss.	his	her, or hers	its	Poss.	their, or theirs
Obj.	$\mathbf{him}$	$\mathbf{her}$	it	Obj.	$\mathbf{them}$

Note.—When the ending self or selves is added to a personal pronoun, it forms a compound personal pronoun.

#### FORMS OF COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
First Person	myself	ourselves
Second Person	$\left\{ egin{array}{l}  ext{thyself} \  ext{yourself} \end{array}  ight\}$	yourselves
Third Person	$\left\{egin{array}{ll} \textit{Mas.} & \text{himself} \ \textit{Fem.} & \text{herself} \ \textit{Neut.} & \text{itself} \end{array} ight\}$	themselves

### 131. CONJUNCTIVE OR RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

A conjunctive or relative pronoun performs the offices of pronoun and subordinate conjunction.

A conjunctive pronoun forms part of a clause.

As a pronoun, it represents a noun or pronoun, called its antecedent. As a subordinate conjunction, it connects the clause in which it stands, with its antecedent.

The conjunctive or relative pronouns are who, which, what, and that.

## Examples.

- 1. I saw Mr. Adams of whom you spoke.
- 2. We respect the man whose word is truthful.
- 3. The man who came from California has gone to Europe.

Who always represents persons.

Which represents inferior animals or things without life.

That represents persons, animals, or things.

What represents things.

That is preferable to who or which in restrictive clauses; as, The gentleman that was injured lives in New Haven.

That is also preferred to who or which,-

- 1. After the interrogative pronoun who.
- 2. After an adjective in the superlative degree.
- 3. After the word same.
- 4. When the antecedent consists of both persons and things.

It is customary to call as a relative pronoun in the expressions, such as, many as, same as.

There seems, however, to be merely an ellipsis of the relative and its antecedent: as, Keep such as you wish. That is—keep such as (those are which) you wish.

When the ellipsis is supplied, as becomes a conjunctive adverb.

#### 132. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

Who, whose, whom, which, and what, are called interrogative pronouns, when they are used as the essential part of a question.

#### Examples.

- 1. What did you say?
- 2. Who came yesterday?
- 3. Of whom did you intend to speak?
- 4. At whose store were the goods bought?
- 5. Which of the articles were obtained in New York?

# 183. FORMS OF CONJUNCTIVE AND INTER ROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

#### Who.

SINC	SINGULAR. PLURAL.		RAL.
Nom.	who	Nom.	who
Poss.	whose	Poss.	whose
Obj.	whom	Obj.	whom

#### Which.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. which	Nom. which
Poss. whose	Poss. whose
Obj. which	Obj. which

			What.		
SIN	GULAR.			PLU	RAL.
Nom.	what			Nom.	what
Poss.				Poss.	
Obj.	what			Obj.	what
			That.		
SINC	BULAR.			PLU	RAL.
Nom.	that			Nom.	that
Poss.		•		Poss.	
Obi.	that			Ohi.	that

Note.—When ever, or soever, is added to who, whose, which, or what, the word formed is called a compound relative pronoun.

A pronoun must agree in person, number, and gender with the noun it represents.

It is sometimes used without reference to the gender or number of its antecedent.

## 134. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

Use of each, every, their, his, her.

You may write the sentences given below, supplying in each, one or more of the words each, every, their, his, or her.

## Example.

## Each man must do his best.

boy must study own lessons man must
depend upon —— own efforts. —— child carried ——
own satchel. All the school were waiting for ——— teacher.
—— young lady read —— own essay. —— person must
take care of —— own interests. —— one sang —— song
very well.

## 185. KINDS OF ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives that express some quality of the words they modify, are called qualifying adjectives.

Adjectives that simply point out without expressing quality, are called limiting adjectives.

## Examples.

sweet happy dashing (Qualifying adjectives.) four double five first (Limiting adjectives.)

The words a, an, and the are a kind of adjectives.

They are called articles.

A or an is called the indefinite article.

The is called the definite article.

## Examples.

- It is a long story.
   He stayed an hour.
   The house has been painted.
  - 186. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

Use of that kind, those kinds.

CAUTION.—Do not use those kinds for that kind.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, the words that kind, or those kinds.

of fish are hard to cat	ch. —— of people
is not liked. I have seen ——	of flowers before.
of fruits are rare.	of shoes are called
moccasins of animals	are called thick skinned.
——— of coal is the best.	4

#### 187. COMPARISON.

The change in form of an adjective or an adverb to show different degrees of quantity or quality, is called comparison.

#### Examples.

large	larger	largest
useful	more useful	most useful

The three degrees of comparison are called, positive, comparative, and superlative.

The positive simply expresses the quality.

The comparative expresses a higher or lower degree of the quality.

The superlative expresses the highest or lowest degree of the quality.

Adjectives which form their comparative by the addition of er to the positive, and their superlative by the addition of est to the positive, are said to be regularly compared.

Notes.—Almost all adjectives of one syllable are compared by adding er and est.

# Examples.

few	fewer	fewest
bold	bolder	boldest
small	smaller	smallest
young	younger	youngest

Most adjectives of more than one syllable are compared by prefixing the adverbs more and most, or less and least.

# Examples.

willful	more willful	most willful
ambitious	more ambitious	most ambitious

Adjectives which require different words to express their degrees of comparison, are said to be irregularly compared,

	Examples.	
bad	worse	
good	better	

little less least much more most many more most

worst

best

Notes.—Many is used with a singular noun, when followed by the indefinite article: as, Full many a gem.

An adjective is commonly placed before the noun it limits; but when it is itself limited by a phrase, it follows the noun: as, The merchant found the clerk guilty of theft.

## 138. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

. Using adjectives of different degrees of comparison. You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, the comparative or superlative degree of adjectives.

The —— of the two boys is the ——. The —— of the	he
three sisters is the ———. The ——— summer days are the ———	
pleasant. The —— of the two sisters is the —— intelligen	nt
one. The —— of the three trees is the —— beautiful on	e.
The hats of the —— brothers are the —— ones. This is	a
evening than last evening.	

#### 139. PROPER ADJECTIVES.

- 1. Natives of Germany speak the German language.
- 2. People living in Italy speak the Italian language.

Adjectives like German and Italian, which are derived from proper nouns, are called **proper adjectives.** 

**Proper adjectives,** like proper nouns, should begin with a capital letter.

NOUNS.	PROPER ADJECTIVES.	NOUNS.	PROFER ADJECTIVES.
Chili	Chilian	Mexico	Mexican
Cuba	Cuban	Britain	British
Spain	Spanish	Sweden	Swedish
China	Chinese	Canada	Canadian
Rome	Roman	Holland	Dutch
Rhine	Rhenish	Norway	Norwegian
Japan	Japanese	Scotland	Scotch
Greece	Grecian	Portugal	Portuguese
France	French	Hungary	Hungarian

# 140. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

Use of rapid, rapidly, distinct, distinctly.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each one of the words rapid, rapidly, distinct, distinctly, in the vacant places.

The stream flows ———. Can you not speak more ———?
Please, talk ——. He has a clear, —— utterance. You do
not speak your words ——. This is a —— river. The
—— motion pleased the passengers. I told you —— that
you could not go. The train was moving ——.

# 141. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Adjectives like each, many, and few, when they are used in place of nouns which they limit, are called adjective pronouns.

#### Examples.

- 1. He asked a penny of each.
- 2. Few attended the lecture.
- 3. Many went to the concert.
- 4. Each boy caught several fine trout.

#### 142. KINDS OF ADVERBS.

Adverbs are of five kinds: time (to-day), place (there), degree (very), manner (freely), and cause (why).

# Examples.

- 1. It is very cold.
- 3. Edward may go there.
- 2. Mary came yesterday. 4. John spoke his mind freely.
  - 5. Why do you not come?

# 143. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

Use of badly, wonderfully, uncommonly.

You may write the sentences given below, supplying in each, one of the words badly, wonderfully, or uncommonly.

Caution.—The adjectives bad, wonderful, and uncommon, should not be used as adverbs.

It is an ——— fine day.	The man w	as ——	injured.	Ι
am —— well. She is ——	— well to-day	The cl	nild is ——	
bright. That fly is ——	large. The	boy has	been	_
treated. The path was an -	smooth	one.		

#### 144. CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

Adverbs, introducing a clause, and connecting it with the principal clause, are called conjunctive adverbs.

# Examples.

- 1. We shall return when the moon rises.
  - 2. He will find us where the men are mowing.

Adverbs like when or where, introducing a clause, modify verbs, and connect their clauses to the principal clause.

When connects the clause to shall return, and modifies shall return and rises.

There when not an adverb of place, adds nothing to the sense, but simply inverts the order of the subject and predicate. It is an expletive, and does not limit: as, "There was a sound of revelry by night."

The so-called "adverbs of affirmation and negation," yes, yea, no, nay, perform the office of a sentence: May I read? Yes—that is—you may read.

Adverbs, like adjectives, are compared by the use of more and most, and less and least.

# Example.

richly more richly most richly.

## 145. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

You may write sentences, containing the clauses given below. Point out the conjunctive adverb in each, and tell what verb it limits.

-	before he arrives.	 $\mathbf{w}$ hile	$\mathbf{he}$	was aw	ay.
	when summer returns.	 when	the	violets	blossom.

# Than, used with he, she, or I.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one of the words he, she, or I.

I am taller than ——. James can ride faster than ——. You are more industrious than ——. I am more inclined to complain than ——. I am four years younger than ——.

#### 146. CONJUNCTIONS.

Co-ordinate-Subordinate.

Conjunctions that connect words or sentences of equal rank, are called co-ordinate conjunctions.

# Examples.

- 1. Exercise strengthens and beautifies the body.
- 2. William has come; but he can not stay.

Conjunctions introducing clauses, are called **sub-**ordinate conjunctions.

# Examples.

- 1. We must hurry before the rain comes.
- 2. They can remain until four o'clock.

Conjunctive adverbs are also classed as subordinate conjunctions.

The principal co-ordinate conjunctions are: therefore, but, for, and, nor, and or.

The principal subordinate conjunctions are: until, except, aithough, if, after, that, since, while, and because.

#### 147. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

Write the following sentences, supplying the conjunction in each. State whether the conjunction is co-ordinate or subordinate.

I will go —— he calls. He must be there —— he will
lose the place. Live wisely, ——— you may live long. I know
the blueberries grow. "Let us learn to live; we
must die alone." "There health ——— plenty cheered the labor-
ing swain." He went —— he returned. The angles are equal
——— the sides are equal. The night was so cold ———— the
water froze in the buckets. The man is wise and honorable
——— he is poor.

# 148. CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

Conjunctions used in pairs are called **correlative** conjunctions.

# Examples.

as, so As you act so will you succeed.
both, and She is both well and happy.

neither, nor Neither the one nor the other is sold.

either, or Either you or I will go.

though, yet Though he is very sick, yet he may recover.

whether, or I must go whether you do or not.
if, then If he is hungry, then feed him.

Correlative conjunctions may be either subordinate or co-ordinate.

# Examples.

- 1. Both he and I are to be there. (Co-ordinate.)
- 2. As the twig is bent, so the tree is inclined. (Subordinate.)

In the last example, only as is subordinate.

# 149. MODES.

Different ways of assertion are called medes.

There are four modes, the indicative, the potential, the subjunctive, and the imperative.

# Examples.

1.	We	learn how to study.
2.	We will	learn how to study.
3.	We may	learn how to study.
4.	We can	learn how to study.
5.	We must	learn how to study.
6.	If I were in school	I would study.
7.	James,	learn how to study.

The assertion of something as a fact is an Indicative mode of expression.

# Example.

The horse is lame.

The assertion of possibility, ability, or duty, is a potential mode of expression.

# Examples.

- 1. He would not say any thing.
- 2. You must study your lessons.
- 3. I may go to Europe next spring.
- 4. You could have been ready before.

The assertion of something as conditional or doubtful, is a subjunctive mode of expression.

# Example.

If I were to ask, you would give it to me.

The assertion of a command is an Imperative mode of expression.

#### Example.

Charlie, shut the door.

Note.—The **Infinitive Mode** is, properly speaking, not a *mode*. The forms will, however, be found in their usual position in the conjugation of verbs.

### 150. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

You may write the following sentences, using after each, the word indicative, subjunctive, potential, or imperative.

Those children behave well. I will be ready immediately. You could have been studying. Work the first example. If I attend church in the morning, I shall see you. The birds were up before you. Always read slowly. You should be more careful. Always speak the truth. George is waiting for me. You might have called me. We shall go to-morrow. If I were teacher, I would not do so. I was in the house all day.

You may write five sentences, using the indicative mode of expression; five, using the potential; five, using the subjunctive; and five, using the imperative.

Explain each mode.

Model.— is an expression in the —— mode, because

assertion.

possibility, obligation.

doubt.

command.

# 181. TENSE.

TENSE.

The word tense means time.

A verb is in the **present tense**, when it represents something as taking place at the **present** time:

as, Samuel helps his brother.

A verb is in the past tense, when it represents something as having taken place in past time:

as, Jacob helped build the house.

A verb is in the future tense, when it represents something that will occur in the future:

as, William will help carry the table.

A verb is in the **present perfect tense**, when it represents some action as completed at the present time.

## Examples.

- 1. We have helped her.
- 2. He has bought the book.

A verb is in the past perfect tense, when it represents some action as having been completed, at or before some past time.

# Example.

They had gone away.

A verb is in the future perfect tense, when it represents some action that will take place before some fixed time in the future.

# Example.

I shall soon have finished my work.

#### Subjunctive Forms.

The present subjunctive, "if I be, if you be, if he be," seems to be an elliptical form for, if I should be, etc.

These elliptical expressions (if I be, if it snow, etc.), although formerly in frequent use, are now properly used in reference to future time.

Whenever the condition refers to present time, the present indicative form should be used:

as, If William is here (now), I will see him.

The subjunctive past of the verb be is used chiefly to express a wish, or a mere supposition contrary to fact:

as, If I were you, I would go.

Note.—The tenses of the Potential Mode are forms, used to accompany those of the Indicative Mode, and their use is best acquired by practice.

# 182. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

You may tell the tenses of the verbs in the sentences given below.

I study my lessons willingly. I read the story distinctly. I will sew the dress neatly. I have walked a mile and I will rest. I shall have read the book before school-time. The boys had gone out before I called.

Write other verbs, and after each write the name of its tense. Explain each one.

You may write six sentences, containing verbs in the tenses mentioned below. Explain each tense.

Present tense, past, future, present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect.

#### 188. AUXILIARY VERBS.

The verbs shall, will, have, had, may, might, and others used in forming the different modes and tenses, are called auxiliary verbs.

#### Use of Shall and Will.

Shall used with a subject in the first person denotes simple intention:

as, I shall go to-morrow.

Will used with a subject in the first person denotes determination:

as, I will go to-morrow.

When used with a subject in the second or third person, will denotes simple intention; shall implies determination (on the part of the speaker), in the form either of a command or a promise.

# Examples.

- 1. He will return soon.
- 2. You will see the picture.
- 3. Thou shalt not steal.
- 4. He shall row the boat.
- 5. The book shall be returned.

# 154. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one or both of the words shall or will.

He —— be killed; nobody —— rescue him. She ——
see him to-morrow. I —— write a letter to-day. I ——
try to meet you at the lecture. It ——— be done. ——— I
be allowed to occupy that room? Do you think the book
sell? You —— do it, for I —— compel you. I —— go,
and you not prevent me I call upon her, if she
desires it.

#### 188. KINDS OF PARTICIPLES.

There are two participles, the **Imperfect** and the past (perfect).

They have no tenses, but simply express incomplete or complete action.

The Imperfect participle always ends in Ing.

The past (perfect) participle commonly ends in d, t, or n. Having, prefixed to the past participle, forms the compound perfect participle.

## Examples.

Emperfect Participle. Past (Perfect) Participle. Compound Perfect Participle. walking walked having walked.

The imperfect active participle is sometimes used in a passive sense:

as, The house is building.

The past (perfect) participle is always passive: as, A nail well driven will support a great weight.

# 186. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

You may write the sentences given below, using in each, one of the words, stop, stopping, stay, or staying.

Stop, means to cease to go forward. Stay, means to remain, to abide, or dwell.

1	do	$\mathbf{not}$	like	to -		at l	ome	. V	Vhere	are	you	?
The	boy		— in	the s	street.	. I	am	goin	g to		– a v	week in
the	city.	Ιd	o not	like	to -		so :	sudd	enly.	She	ran	around
the	hous	e twi	ice, w	rithou	1t —	—.	We	are		- at 1	the h	otel.

# 157. REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS.

A verb that forms its past tense and past (perfect) participle, by adding d or ed to the present tense, is called a regular verb:

# Examples.

Present, Love. Past, Loved. Past Participle, Loved. Present, Walk. Past, Walked. Past Participle, Walked.

A verb that does not form its past tense and past participle, by the addition of d or ed to the present tense, is called an Irregular verb:

# Examples.

Present, Bite.	Past, Bit.	Past Participle, Bitten.
Present, Draw.	Past, Drew.	Past Participle, Drawn.
Present, Hear.	Past, Heard.	Past Participle, Heard.

A verb which can be used in but part of the modes and tenses is a **defective verb**:

as: Present, Ought.

The forms of verbs, from which the different modes and tenses are derived, either with or without the use of auxiliary verbs, are called the principal parts.

They are the Present Indicative, the Past Indicative, and the Past Participle.

Giving the different modes and tenses of a verb in regular order, is called **conjugation**.

The regular arrangement of the forms of one person and number of a verb in all its modes and tenses, is called synopsis.

# 158. CONJUGATION OF THE VERB GIVE. Principal Parts.

Pres.

Past.

Past, Par.

give.

gave.

given.

#### Indicative Mode.

#### Present Tense.

PLURAL.

1. I give.

We give.

2. You give, or Thou givest.

SINGULAR.

2. You give.

He gives.

3. They give.

#### l'ast Tonse.

PLURAL.

1. I gave.

1. We gave. 2. You gave.

2. You gave, or Thou gavest. 3. He gave.

They gave.

# Puture Tense.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

1. I shall give.

1. We shall give.

2. You will give, or Thou wilt give.

2. You will give.

3. He will give.

They will give.

#### Present Perfect Tenne.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

1. I have given.

1. We have given.

2. You have given, or Thou hast given.

2. You have given.

3. He has given.

3. They have given

#### Past Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

1. I had given.

1. We had given.

You had given, or 2. Thou hadst given.

2. You had given.

3. He had given.

3. They had given.

# Future Perfect Tense. PLURAL. SINGULAR. 1. I shall have given. We shall have given. You will have given, or Thou wilt have given. 2. You will have given. 3. He will have given. 3. They will have given. Potential Mode. Present Tense. SINGULAR. PLURAL. 1. I may give. 1. We may give. You may give, or Thou mayst give. 2. You may give. 3. He may give. 3. They may give. Past Tense. SINGULAR. PLUBAL. 1. I might give. 1. We might give. 2. You might give, or Thou mightst give. 2. You might give. 3. He might give. 3. They might give. Present Perfect Tense. SINGULAR. PLURAL. 1. We may have given. 1. I may have given. 2. You may have given, or 2. You may have given. Thou mayst have given. 3. He may have given. 3. They may have given. Past Perfect Tense. SINGULAR. PLUBAL.

1. I might have given.	1.	We might have given.
2. You might have given, or Thou mightst have given	2.	You might have given.
3. He might have given.	3.	They might have given.

#### Subjunctive Mode.

# Present Tense.

SINGULAR. 1. If I give.

PLURAL

- 1. If we give.
- 2. If you give, or If thou give.

2. If you give.

3. If he give.

3. If they give.

#### Past Tense.

SINGULAR. If I gave.

- PLUBAL. If we gave.
- 2. If you gave, or If thou gave.
- 2. If you gave.

3. If he gave.

3. If they gave.

#### Imperative Mode.

#### Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- 2. Give (you or thou).
- 2. Give (you).

Infinitives.

Present Tense.

to give

# Present Perfect Tense.

to have given

#### Participles.

Present.

Past.

Past Perfect.

giving

given

having given

# 189. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

Use of saw; have seen.

You may write the sentences given below, supplying in each the words saw, or have seen.

When the time referred to reaches to the present, have seen must be used; in all other cases, saw is proper.

I never —— so large a crowd before. I —— a comet once. When I was in Italy, I never —— so beautiful a sunset. We —— the paintings before. James says he —— the ocean. The people of South America —— the eclipse. You never —— a larger house.
160. THE VERB BE.

# Indicative Mode.

		Present	Tonse.	
	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
1.	I am.		1.	We are.
2.	Thou art.		2.	You are.
3.	He is.		3.	They are.

SINGULAR.

1.	1 was.	ı.	we were.
2.	Thou wast.	2.	You were.
3.	He was	3	They were

#### Future Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
<ol> <li>I shall or I will be.</li> </ol>	1. We shall or will be	
2. Thou wilt or thou shalt be.	2. You will or shall be	е.
3. He will or shall be.	3. They will or shall l	he

1.	I have been.	1.	We have been.
2.	Thou hast been.	2.	You have been.
3.	He has been.	3.	They have been.

# Past Perfect Tense.

	OLD GO LIAD.		LUCHALA
1.	I had been.	1.	We had been.
2.	Thou hadst been.	2.	You had been.
3.	He had been.	3.	They had been.

1.	I shall or will have been.	1.	We	shall	or	will	$\mathbf{have}$	been.
2.	Thou wilt or shalt have been.	2.	You	will	or	shall	have	been

3. He will or shall have been. 3. They will or shall have been.

#### Potential Mode.

#### Present Tense.

PLURAL.

PLUBAL.

1.	I may be.	1.	We may be.
2.	Thou mayst be.	2.	You may be.
3.	He may be.	3.	They may be.
	Past 1	Tonse.	
	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
1.	I might be.	1.	We might be.
2.	Thou mightst be.	2.	You might be.
· 3.	He might be.	3.	They might be.

#### Present Perfect Tense.

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
1.	I may have been.	1.	We may have been.
2.	Thou mayst have been.	2.	You may have been.
3.	He may have been.	3.	They may have been.

#### Past Perfect Tense.

1.	I might have been.	1.	We might have been.
2.	Thou mightst have been.	2.	You might have been.
3.	He might have been.	3.	They might have been

# 161. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

Use of love and like.

STNGTILAR.

You may write the sentences given below, supplying in each, one of the words love, or like.

Like implies the feeling of a moderate degree of pleasure; love implies an intense feeling of pleasure, resulting in devotion or self-sacrifice.

I all	kinds of vegetables.	She shows her —— by
what she does.	I do —— apples.	I —— peaches better than
apples. I —	— to watch the sun	set. A person will do more

for	of another,	than for	any thing	else.	Hattie says	she
does	- her mothe	er.				

#### 162. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

Use of taste, tasted, tastes.

You may write the sentences given below, supplying in each, one of the words taste, tasted, or tastes.

When taste is used as a transitive verb, it should not be followed by of.

Will	you !	let me		that	apple?	Have	you —		$\mathbf{the}$
lemon jı	uice?	I shou	ıld like	to —	that	cake.	Willie	says	he
has ——	— the	medic	ine. 1	May I	t1	he peac	h?		

The intransitive verb tastes is often followed by of.

The cheese —— fish. The ice-cream —— salt. The water —— soda.

Note.—Some verbs are followed by a preposition, both in the active and passive. The preposition is then considered as part of the verb: as, laugh at.

# 163. SUPPLYING VERB-FORMS.

Pupils may write the following forms, supplying some **verb** in the vacant places.

# Indicative Mode.

#### Present Tense.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.		
1.	I	1.	We	
2.	You ——. Thou ——.	2.	You	
	He	3.	They	

Past Tense									
1. I ——.	1	We							
(Von ——									
2. {You Thou	2.	You							
3. He ——.	3.	They							
Future Tense.									
1. I shall ——.	1	We shall ——.							
(Von will —	1.	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,							
2. You will ——. Thou wilt ——.	2.	You will ——.							
3. He will ——.	3.	They will							
Present Perfect	Ten	se.							
1. I have ——.	1.	We have ——.							
	1.	we have ——.							
2. You have ——. Thou hast ——.	2.	You have ——.							
3. He has ——.	3.	They have ——.							
Past Perfect 1	Tense	•							
SINGULAR.		PLURAL.							
1. I had ——.	1.	We had ——.							
2. You had ——. Thou hadst ——.	2.	You had							
3. He had ——.	3.	They had							
Future Perfect	Tons	<b>16.</b>							
1. I shall have ——.		PLURAL.							
	1.	We shall have ———							
2. You will have ——. Thou wilt have ——.	2.	You will have							
3. He will have ——.	3.	They will have ——							
Potential Mo	ode.								
i'reaent Ten Singular,	se.								
1. I may ——.	1.	We may ——.							
(You may ——									
2. You may ——. Thou mayst ——.	2.	You may ——.							
8 He may	9	Thou man							

Past Tense.								
SINGULAB.		PLURAL.						
1. I might ——.	1.	We might ——.						
You might	0	Von might						
2. You might ——. Thou mightst ——.	z.	You might ——.						
3. He might ——.	3.	They might ——.						
Present Perfect	Ton	se.						
SINGULAR.		PLURAL.						
1. I may have ——.	1.	We may have ——.						
2. You may have ——. Thou mayst have ——.	9.	You may have						
Thou mayst have ——.	~.	Tou may have ———						
3. He may have ——.	3.	They may have ——						
Past Perfect 1	'ense	•						
SINGULAR.	_	PLURAL.						
1. I might have ——.	1.	We might have ——						
2. You might have ——. Thou mightst have ——.	2.	You might have						
(Thou mightst have ——.								
3. He might have ———.	3.	They might have ———						
Subjunctive	Mod	le.						
Present Ten								
SINGULAR.		PLURAL.						
1. If I ——.	1.	If we ——.						
2. {If you ——. If thou ——.								
2. (If thou ——.	z.	If you ——.						
3. If he ——.	3.	If they ——.						
Past Tense	<b>9.</b>							
SINGULAR.		PLURAL.						
1. If I ——.	1.	If we ——.						
2. {If you ——. If thou ——.	0	Te mou						
? If thou ——.	æ.	If you ——.						
3. If he ——.	3.	If they ——.						
Imperative I	Immovedine Made							
•								
Present Ten		в.						
Present Ten		PLURAL.  (you).						

Infinitives.

Present Tense.
to ——

Present Perfect Tense.

	to have ——	•
	Participles.	
Present.	Past.	Past Perfect.
ing		having ——
CONJUGATION OF T	HE PASSIVE	FORM OF THE VERB
I	ndicative Mod	le.
	Present Tense.	
SINGULAR.	ه.	PLURAL. ·
1. I am		. We are ——.
2. {You are ———————————————————————————————————	or 2	. You are ——.
3. He is ——.	_	. They are ——.
	Past Tense.	
SINGULAR.	2 400 20,000	PLURAL.
1. I was ——.	1	. We were ——.
2. You were ——————————————————————————————————	_, or 2	. You were ——.
3. He was ——.		. They were ——.
	Future Tense.	
SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
1. I shall be ——	<del>-</del> . 1	. We shall be ——.
2. You will be — Thou wilt be —	, or 2	. You will be ——.
3. He will be —		. They will be ——.
Pr	rsent Perfect Te	nse.
SINGULAR.	.,	PLURAL.
1. I have been —	<del></del> . 1	. We have been ——.
2. You have been Thou hast been	, or	. You have been ——.
3. He has been —		. They have been ——.
		,

Past Perfe	Past Perfect Tense.							
1. I had been ——.	1. We had been ——.							
	i. Wo had been ——.							
2. You had been —, or Thou hadst been —.	2. You had been ——							
3. He had been ——.	3. They had been ——.							
Future Perj	ect Tense. Plural.							
1. I shall have been ——.	1. We shall have been ——.							
2. You will have been —, or Thou wilt have been —.	2. You will have been ——.							
3. He will have been ——.	3. They will have been ——.							
Potential	Mode.							
Present	Tense.							
1. I may be ——.	1. We may be ——.							
2. You may be ——, or Thou mayst be ——.	2. You may be ——.							
3. He may be	3. They may be ——.							
· Past I	ense.							
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.							
1. I might be ——.	1. We might be ———.							
2. You might be —, or Thou mightst be—	2. You might be ——.							
3. He might be ——.	3. They might be ——.							
Present Per	feet Tense.							
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.							
1. I may have been ——.	1. We may have been ——.							
2. You may have been ——, or Thou mayst have been ——.	2. You may have been ——.							
	<b>,</b>							
3. He may have been ——.	3. They may have been ——.							
Past Perfe	oct Tense.							
1. I might have been ——.								
You might have been, or	· ·							
2. Thou mightst have been ——.	2. You might have been ——.							
3. He might have been ——.	3. They might have been ———.							

#### Subjunctive Mode.

Present Tense.							
SINGULAR.		PLURAL.					
1. If I be ——.		If we be ——.					
2. If you be ———————————————————————————————————	or 2.	If you be ——.					
8. If he be ——.	3.	If they be ——.					
	Past Tense.						
SINGULAR.		PLURAL.					
1. If I were ——		If we were ——.					
2. If you were —	—, or	If you were —					
		•					
8. If he were —	3.	If they were ——					
Imperative Mode.							
	Present Tense.						
SINGULAR.	_	PLURAL.					
2. Be (you or thou)	<u> </u>	Be (you) ——					
	Infinitives.						
	Present Tense.						
	to be						
Pre	sent Perfect Ten	se.					
to	have been	_					
	Participles.						
Present.	Past.	Past Perfect.					
being —— b	een	having been -					

## EXERCISE.

Pupils may write from memory the conjugation of the verbs hear and know, in all their voices and modes.

Give all the modes and tenses of the verb go, in the second person, singular number.

# 164. PROGRESSIVE FORMS.

The progressive form of conjugation represents the action progressing: begun, but not finished.

It is formed by prefixing be in all its modes and tenses to the present participle of a verb:

as, Indicative Mode.—Present Tense.

I am seeking.

We are seeking.

You are seeking.

You are seeking.

He is seeking.

They are seeking.

The auxiliary do (does, did) is frequently used in interrogative, negative, and emphatic forms:

as, Do you sing? I do not sing. I do sing.

Number and Person of Verbs.

It has been customary to include **person** and **number** as properties of the verb; but the verb has not these properties in the same sense that nouns and pronouns have.

In the indicative present and present perfect, the form of the verb is changed when the subject is third person singular, see conjugation, p. 202?

The verb be is also varied in the present tense with a subject in the third person singular, see conjugation, p. 205.

A compound subject consisting of two or more singular nouns denoting different persons or things, and connected by and, is plural:

as, Greatness and goodness are not means but ends.

If the noun denotes the same or similar things, the subject usually is singular:

as, My classmate and partner is in the city.

A compound subject, consisting of two or more singular nouns connected by or or nor, is singular:

as, Neither Mary nor Julia was at home.

If one of the nouns is plural, the subject is plural:

as, Either Mary or her sisters are here.

A compound subject, consisting of nouns or pronouns of different persons, is in the person of the word nearest the verb:

as, He and I have read.

When one of the nouns is affirmative and the other negative, the subject is affirmative:

as, Games, and not study, please him.

# 168. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

Use of neither, nor, and either, or.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, one pair of the words neither, nor, and either, or.

the house the garden was sold the
lawyer his clerk was to blame. It will snow
rain, for the clouds are dark. — the carpenter
—— his tools were there. She is —— active —— intelli-
gent. —— you —— I must go. —— money —— men
are needed. —— you —— I were to blame.

## 166. WORK FOR THE CLASS.

You may write the following sentences, supplying in each, the words nothing, or any thing.

I ca	<b>ur</b> e ———	about the	matter.	I know	·	about t	he
book.	I can see	wron	ng in it.	He did 1	not tell	me —	
I know	, no	or do I wish	to know	а	bout the	e story.	

# 167. PARTS OF SENTENCES TRANSPOSED. USE OF THE COMMA.

- 1. Many speak with enthusiasm of Dickens as a writer.
- 2. Of Dickens as a writer, many speak with enthusiasm.
- 3. The money was put into the bank for safe-keeping.
- 4. For safe-keeping, the money was put into the bank.

# A transposed part of a sentence, is set off from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

You may rewrite the following sentences, transposing a part of each, as in the examples 2 and 4.

The man was sent to jail for stealing a horse. Elmer received a prize for writing the best composition. The robins were gathering straws to build their nest. The children could not play out-of-doors because of the cold. The boys could not float down the river as the water was so low. Susie and her mother came instead of Joe and his father.

## 168. RULES FOR PUNCTUATION.

- I. The Period (.).
- 1. Place a period at the close of a declarative or imperative sentence.

Examples.—Hazel-nuts grow on bushes. Come here, Rover.

...

2. Place a period after each abbreviated word.

Examples.—Mr. U.S. Hon. Mrs.

3. Place a period after every title, heading, or number written in Roman notation.

Examples.—A Brief History of the United States.

Chapter I. treating of the Gauls and the Romans.

# II. The Interrogation Point (?).

An interrogation point should be placed at the end of every interrogative sentence.

Examples.—Do you like to skate? Shall we go to the pond?

#### III. The Exclamation Point (I).

An exclamation point should be placed at the end of every exclamatory sentence.

Examples.—O, what can we do! See that boy!

## IV. The Comma (,).

1. A phrase out of its natural order, or not closely connected with the word which it modifies, should be set off by a comma, or commas.

Example.—In South America, monkeys have a curious way of crossing a river.

2. An explanatory modifier which does not limit the modified term or unite with it, is set off by a comma, or commas.

Example.—New York, the metropolis of New York State, is a very large city.

3. A participle, when used as an adjective modifier, with the words belonging to it, is set off by a comma, or commas.

**Example.**—Sleep, coming to us at night, brings the needed rest.

4. Parts of a compound predicate, and other parts of a sentence, when they are long, or differently modified, are set off by a comma, or commas.

**Examples.**—The children laughed, clapped their hands, and went on with the game.

Oats are given to horses as their chief food, and oat-meal made from them is valued for table use.

5. An independent phrase or word is set off by a comma, or commas.

Example.—William, this, then, is your knife.

6. One term that is connected with another by or, and is nearly the same in meaning, is set off by a comma, or commas.

**Example.**—Umbrellas, or parasols, are carried to protect us from sun and rain.

7. The adjective clause, when not restrictive, is set off by a comma, or commas.

**Example.**—Barley, which is used in some countries for bread, is largely used in this country for brewing beer.

8. Connected words and phrases, unless the conjunctions are expressed, are set off by a comma, or commas.

Example.—Wheat, rice, and buckwheat furnish us flour.

9. The adverb clause, when it does not closely follow or restrict the word it modifies, is set off by a comma, or commas.

Example.—When winter comes, there are no wild flowers seen.

10. A noun clause, used as a noun complement, is set off by a comma, or commas.

Example.—Captain Perry's message was, "We have met the enemy and they are ours."

11. A direct quotation, when short and not formally introduced, is set off by a comma.

Example.—General Lyon said, "Come on, brave men, I will lead you."

12. Independent clauses, when short and closely connected, are set off by a comma, or commas.

Example.—His horse stumbled, the guide shouted, the man leaped to the rock and saved his life.

# V. The Semicolon (;).

The semicolon is used to separate simple clauses, and compound or complex clauses.

Example.—The magpie's head, neck, and back are black; throat, gray; shoulders, white; wings, blue; and tail, long.

#### VI. The Colon (:).

1. The colon is used to separate the clauses of a compound sentence, when the semicolon has been used in dividing the parts of the clauses.

- Example.—"Yes, summer has come, and the cuckoo sings his song through woodland and hollow:
  - "The summer has come; if you don't believe me, You have only to ask the swallow."
- 2. A direct quotation of some length and formally introduced, is set off by a colon.
  - Example.—Remember the saying: "He who buys what he does not need, will often need what he can not buy."

#### VII. The Parenthesis ().

When an expression occurs in the body of a sentence, and is nearly independent of it, it may be inclosed in a parenthesis.

Example.—Write an account of the air-pump (after reading the one in your philosophy), using as many kinds of verb-forms as you can.

#### VIII. The Dash (-).

- 1. The dash is used where the sentence breaks off abruptly. A pair of dashes may be used instead of a parenthesis.
  - Examples.—"The boy—O where was he?" The pigeon—which is another name for the dove—has very strong wings.
- 2. The dash is often used before a statement of particulars.
  - Example.—There were four birds in the cage—a sparrow, a canary, a bluebird, and a robin.

## IX. Quotation Marks ("").

1. Quotation marks are used to inclose a quoted passage or word.

Example.—George said: "Bring me a ladder, quick!"

2. If a quotation is contained within a quotation, single marks are used.

Example.—The author said: "The lecturer ended by saying, 'The way of the transgressor is hard."

## X. The Apostrophe (').

1. The apostrophe is used to denote the omission of letters.

Example.—Couldn't you go to Saratoga with me?

2. The apostrophe is used to give the plural form to letters, figures, and characters.

Examples.—Mind your p's and q's. Cast out the 9's.

Make your +'s and —'s with care.

3. The apostrophe is used to denote the possessive case of nouns.

Examples.—The boy's hat is a new one.

The boys' game is over.

# XI. The Hyphen (-).

1. The hyphen is used to unite the parts of a compound word.

Example.—Have you seen a lime-kiln?

2. The hyphen is used to mark the separation of a word into syllables.

Example.—Divide comprehend in this way: com-pre-hend.

# 169. SYNOPSIS OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH,

1.	Nouns	Proper.	
		{	Abstract.
		Соммон	Collective
			Verbal.
2.	Pronouns	PERSONAL.	
		CONJUNCTIVE, OR	RELATIVE.
		INTERROGATIVE.	
		ADJECTIVE.	•

Nouns and pronouns have the following properties:

1. Gender. 2. Number. 3. Person. 4. Case.

3. Verbs...... 
$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} &\text{Transitive.} &\text{Regular.} \\ &\text{Intransitive.} \end{aligned} \right. \left\{ \begin{aligned} &\text{Regular.} \\ &\text{Irregular.} \end{aligned} \right.$$

Verbs have the following properties:

1. Voice.

2. Mode.

3. Tense.

4. Person.

5. Number.

Verbs have the following special forms:

1. The Participle.

2. The Infinitive.

Adjectives and Adverbs have Comparison.

6. Prepositions.

7. Conjunctions.  $\begin{cases} \text{Co-ordinate.} \\ \text{Subordinate.} \end{cases}$ 

8. Interjections.

# 170. HOW TO ANALYZE SENTENCES.

State whether the sentence is  $\begin{cases} \text{simple,} & \text{or } \\ \text{complex. or } \\ \text{compound,} \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{cases} \text{declarative,} \\ \text{interrogative,} \\ \text{imperative, or } \\ \text{exclamatory.} \end{cases}$ 

If the sentence is simple, -

Point out { subject, predicate, and complement (if used).

Name modifiers of  $\begin{cases} \text{subject,} \\ \text{predicate, and} \\ \text{complement.} \end{cases}$ 

State whether these modifiers are  $\begin{cases} \textbf{adjective} & \textbf{words} \\ \textbf{or} \\ \textbf{adverbial} \end{cases}$  phrases.

Separate each phrase into its parts.

Mention independent { words or phrases.

State what connecting-words-conjunctions-(if any) are used.

If the sentence is complex,-

Name modifiers of  $\begin{cases} \text{subject,} \\ \text{predicate, and} \\ \text{complement.} \end{cases}$ 

Separate each phrase, mentioned above, into its parts.

 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{Point out connecting-word} \left. \begin{cases} \textbf{conjunctive pronoun,} \\ \textbf{conjunctive adverb, or} \\ \textbf{conjunction} \end{cases} \right. \begin{array}{l} \textbf{introducing each} \\ \textbf{clause.} \\ \end{array}$ 

Analyze each clause, using form given for the simple sentence.

If the sentence is compound,—

Point out each member.

Analyze each member: if simple, using form given for the simple sentence; if complex, using form given for the complex sentence.

Note.—If the sentence is poetical, rearrange the words in the order of prose and supply necessary words in parentheses before analyzing.

#### 171. SELECTIONS FOR ANALYSIS.

ı.

That action is best which procures the greatest happiness for the greatest numbers.

HUTCHINSON.

11.

Some books are to be tasted; others, to be swallowed; and some few, to be chewed and digested.

BACON.

III.

Charms strike the sight, but merit wins the soul.

Pope.

IV.

A wonderful stream is the River of Time,
As it runs through the realm of tears
With a faultless rhythm and a musical rhyme,
And a broader sweep and a surge sublime
As it blends with the ocean of years.

· Benjamin F. Taylor.

V.

Our grand business in life<sup>8</sup> is not to see<sup>9</sup> what<sup>10</sup> lies dimly at a distance, but to do what lies clearly at hand.

CARLYLE.

- A clause introduced by "which" is an adjective clause. What noun does this clause limit?
  - \* What verb is to be supplied?
  - What noun may be understood?
  - \* What two adverbial clauses limit is?
  - Ask the questions where and how to find the adverbial modifiers of runs.
- Notice that the adverbial phrases following the comma, belong to the verb blends.
  - ' What preposition is understood?
- In life, according to the sense, must limit business, and is therefore an adjective phrase.
  - \* Is to see an infinitive phrase used as a noun complement?
- 10 What is a "double relative pronoun," and equivalent to the two relatives that which. That is the object complement of to see, and which is the subject of ites.

#### VI.

The Romans worshiped their standard, and the Roman standard happened to be an eagle. Our standard is only one tenth of an eagle,—a dollar,—and we make all even by loving it with tenfold devotion.

EDGAR ALLAN POE.

#### VII.

And what is so rare as a day in June?
Then, if ever, come perfect days;
Then Heaven tries the earth if it be in tune,
And over it softly her warm ear lays.

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL.

#### VIII.

Pride is as loud a beggar as Want, and a good deal more saucy. When you have bought one fine thing, you must buy ten more, that your appearance may be all of a piece; but it is easier to suppress the first desire than to satisfy all that follow it.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

#### IX.

The breaking waves dashed high on a stern and rock-bound coast.

And the woods against a stormy sky their giant branches tossed.

And the heavy night hung dark the hills and waters o'er,<sup>2</sup>
When a band of exiles moored their bark on the wild New
England shore.

Mrs. Hemans.

#### x.

Beside yon straggling fence that skirts the way With blossomed furze unprofitably gay,
There, in his noisy mansion, skilled to rule,
The village master<sup>3</sup> taught<sup>3</sup> his little school.
A man severe he was and stern to view,
I knew him well, and every truant knew;

- 1 What verb is understood?
- <sup>2</sup> In prose, what would be the position of o'er (over)?
- <sup>3</sup> When rearranging sentence place the modifiers near the word they modify.

Well had the boding tremblers learned to trace A day's disasters in his morning face;
Full well they laughed with counterfeited glee At all his jokes, for many a joke had he;
Full well the busy whisper circling round,
Conveyed the dismal tidings when he frowned.

GOLDSDOTTH.

#### XI.

Little minds are tamed and subdued by misfortune: but great minds rise above it.

Washington Irving.

#### XII.

Surely happiness is reflective, like the light of heaven: and every countenance bright with smiles and glowing with innocent enjoyment is a mirror transmitting to others the rays of a supreme and ever-shining benevolence.

WASHINGTON IRVING.

#### XIII.

Dreams, books, are each a world; and books, we know, Are a substantial world, both pure and good; Round these, with tendrils strong as flesh and blood, Our pastime and our happiness will grow.

WORDSWORTH.

#### XIV.

Life! We've been long together,
Through pleasant and through cloudy weather;
'Tis hard to part when friends are dear—
Perhaps it will cost a sigh, a tear;
Then steal away, give little warning,
Choose thine own time;
Say not good-night,—but in some brighter clime
Bid me good-morning.

MRS. BARBAULD.

- 1 What connecting-word is understood?
- 2 And connects what goes before with what follows.

#### XV.

Youth! youth! how buoyant are thy hopes! They turn Like marigolds toward the sunny side.

JEAN INCREM.

#### XVI.

Whatever I have tried to do in my life, I have tried with all my heart to do well. What I have devoted myself to, I have devoted myself to completely. Never to put my hand to any thing on which I would not throw my whole self, and never to affect depreciation of my work, whatever it was, I find to have been my golden rules.

CHARLES DICKENS.

#### XVII.

Look not mournfully into the past; it comes not back again. Wisely improve the present; it is thine. Go forth to meet the shadowy future without fear and with a manly heart.

LONGFELLOW.

#### XVIII.

What men want is not talent, it is purpose; not the power to achieve, but the will to labor.

Bulwer-Lytron.

#### XIX.

Flags of the free hearts' hope and home,
By angel hands to valor given,
Thy stars have lit the welkin dome,
And all thy hues were born in heaven.
Forever float that standard sheet!
Where breathes the foe that falls before us,
With freedom's soil beneath our feet,
And freedom's banner streaming o'er us?

JOSEPH R. DRAKE.

- 1 Whatever equals that which.
- \* Is that or which the object complement of to do?
- \* What may be divided into what two words?
- A Name the object of to.
- ' If fag is independent, all its modifiers must be analyzed with it and kept apart from the sentence proper.

#### XX.

How beautiful is the summer night, which is not night, but a sunless, yet unclouded day, descending upon earth with dews, and shadows, and refreshing coolness! How beautiful the long, mild twilight, which, like a silver clasp, unites to-day with yesterday! How beautiful the silent hour, when morning and evening thus sit together, hand in hand, beneath the starless sky of midnight! From the church tower in the public square the bell tolls the hour, with a soft, musical chime; and the watchman, whose watch-tower is the belfry, blows a blast in his horn for each stroke of the hammer; and four times to the four corners of the heaven, in a sonorous voice he chants,—

"Ho! watchman, ho! twelve is the clock!

God keep our town from fire and brand,

And hostile hand! twelve is the clock!"

LONGFELLOW, in "A Swedish Night."

#### XXI.

The books which help you most are those which make you think most. The hardest way of learning is by easy reading; but a great book that comes from a great thinker,—it is a ship of thought, deep freighted with truth and with beauty.

THEO. PARKER.

#### XXII.

There is a pleasure in the pathless woods,

There is a rapture on the lonely shore;
There is society where none intrudes

By the deep sea, and music in its roar.

I love not man the less but Nature more,

From these our interviews, in which I steal

From all I may be, or have been before,

To mingle with the universe, and feel

What I can ne'er express, yet can not all conceal.

BYRON.

<sup>1</sup> Supply which is.

What verb is understood?

<sup>3</sup> Supply a preposition to govern twelve.

#### XXIII.

A cheerful temper, joined with innocence, will make beauty attractive, knowledge delightful, and wit good-natured. It will lighten sickness, poverty, and affliction, convert ignorance into an amiable simplicity, and render deformity itself agreeable.

JOSEPH ADDISON.

#### XXIV.

Lives nobly ended make the twilights long, And keep in tune God's nightingales of song.

B. F. TAYLOR.

#### XXV.

Ruskin's advice is: "Make yourselves nests of pleasant thoughts. None of us yet know, for none of us have been taught in early youth, what fair palaces we may build of beautiful thoughts, proof against all adversity. Bright fancies, satisfied memories, noble histories, faithful sayings, treasure-houses of precious and restful thoughts, which care can not disturb, nor pain make gloomy, nor poverty take away from us—houses built without hands for our souls to live in."

#### XXVI.

As we proceeded, the timid approach of twilight became more perceptible; the intense blue of the sky began to soften; the smaller stars, like little children, went first to rest; the sister beams of the Pleiades soon melted together; but the bright constellations of the west and north remained unchanged. Steadily the wondrous transfiguration went on. Hands of angels hidden from mortal eyes shifted the scenery of the heavens; the glories of the night dissolved into the glories of the dawn. The blue sky now turned more softly gray; the great watch-stars shut up their holy eyes; the east began to kindle. Faint streaks of purple soon blushed along the sky; the whole celestial conclave was filled with the inflowing tides of morning light, which came pouring down from above in one great ocean of radiance; till at length, as we reached the Blue Hills, a flash of purple fire blazed out from above the horizon,

and turned the dewy tear-drops of flower and leaf into rubies and diamonds. In a few seconds the everlasting gates of the morning were thrown wide open, and the lord of day, arrayed in glories too severe for the gaze of man, began his state.

EVERETT.

### 172. LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
am or be,	was,	been.
arise,	arose,	arisen.
bear (to bring forth),	bore or bare,	born.
bear (to uphold),	bore, bare,	borne.
beat,	beat,	beat or beaten.
begin,	began,	begun.
bid,	bid, bade,	bid, bidden.
bite,	bit,	bit, bitten.
blow,	blew,	blown.
break,	broke, brake,	broken.
chide,	chid,	chid, chidden.
choose,	chose,	chosen.
cleave (to split),	cleft, clove,	cleft, cloven.
come,	came,	come.
do,	did,	done.
draw,	drew,	drawn.
drink,	drank,	drunk, <i>drank</i> .
drive,	drove,	driven.
eat,	ate, eat,	eat, eaten.
fall,	fell,	fallen.
fly,	flew,	flown.
forbear,	forbore,	forborne.
forget,	forgot,	forgot, forgotten.
forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
freeze,	froze,	frozen.
get,	got,	got, gotten.

Note.—Old forms are printed in Italics.

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
give,	gave,	given.
go,	went,	gone.
grow,	grew,	grown.
hide,	hid,	hid, hidden.
hold,	held,	held, holden.
know,	knew,	known.
lade (to load),*	laded,	laden.
lie (to recline),	lay,	lain.
ride,	rode,	ridden.
ring,	rung, rang,	rung.
rise,	rose,	risen.
run,	ran, <i>run</i> ,	run.
see,	saw,	seen.
shake,	shook,	shaken.
shrink,	shrunk, <i>shrank</i> ,	shrunk.
sing,	sung, sang,	sung.
sink,	sunk, sank,	sunk.
slay,	slew,	slain.
smite,	smote,	smitten, smit.
speak,	spoke, spake,	${f spoken.}$
spin,	spun, span,	spun.
spring,	sprung, sprang,	sprung.
steal,	stole,	stolen.
stride,	strode,	stridden.
strive,	strove,	striven.
swear,	swore,	sworn.
swim,	swum, swam,	swum
swing,	swung, swang,	swung.
take,	took,	taken.
tear,	tore,	torn.
throw,	threw,	thrown.
tread,	trod,	trod or trodden.
wear,	wore,	worn.
write,	wrote,	written.
weave,	wove,	wove, woven.

<sup>\*</sup> Lade, to dip, is regular.

# IRREGULAR VERBS WHOSE PAST TENSE AND PAST PARTICIPLES ARE ALIKE.

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
abide,	abode,	abode.
bend,	bent,	bent.
beseech,	besought,	besought.
bind,	bound,	bound.
bleed,	bled,	bled.
breed,	bred,	bred.
bring,	brought,	brought.
burst,	burst,	burst.
buy,	bought,	bought.
cast,	cast,	cast.
catch,	caught,	caught.
cling,	clung,	clung.
cost,	cost,	cost.
creep,	crept,	crept.
cut,	cut,	cut.
dig,	dug,	dug.
feed,	fed,	fed.
feel,	felt,	felt.
fight,	fought,	fought.
find,	found,	found.
flee,	fled,	fled.
fling,	flung,	flung.
grind,	ground,	ground.
have,	had,	had.
hear,	heard,	heard.
hit,	hit,	hit.
hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
keep,	kept,	kept.
lay,	laid,	laid.
lead,	led,	led.
leave,	left,	left.
lend,	lent,	lent.
let,	let,	let.
lose,	lost,	lost.

Present. Past. make. made. mean. meant. meet. met. paid, pay, put, put. read. read.\* rend. rent. rid, rid. said. say, seek. sought, sell. sold. send. sent. set. set. shed, shed. shoe, shod. shoot. shot. shut. shut. sit, sat. sleep, slept, slide. slid, sling, slung. slink. slunk. slit. slit, speed, sped, spend, spent, spit. spit, split, split. spread. spread, stand. stood. stick. stuck, sting. stung, strike. struck. string. strung, sweep, swept, teach. taught, tell. told,

Past Participle. made. meant. met. paid. put. read.\* rent. rid. said. sought. sold. sent. set. shed. shod. shot. shut. sat. slept. slid. slung. slunk. slit. slitted sped. spent. spit. split. spread. stood. stuck. stung. struck. strung. swept. taught. told.

<sup>\*</sup> Pronounced red.

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
think,	thought,	thought.
thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
weep,	wept,	wept.
win,	won,	won.
wind,	wound,	wound.
wring,	wrung,	wrung.

The following verbs are sometimes regular, and sometimes irregular, in the formation of their principal parts:—

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
awake,	awoke, awaked,	awaked.
bereave,	bereft, bereaved,	bereft, bereaved.
blend,	blended,	blended, blent.
build,	built, builded,	built, builded.
burn,	burned, burnt,	burned, burnt.
cleave (to adhere),	cleaved, clave,	cleaved.
clothe,	clothed, clad,	clothed, clad.
crow,	crowed, crew,	crowed.
dare (to venture),	dared, durst,	dared.
deal,	dealt, dealed,	dealt, dealed.
dream,	dreamed, dreamt,	dreamed, dreamt,
dwell,	dwelt, dwelled,	dwelt, dwelled.
gild,	gilded, gilt,	gilded, gilt.
gird,	girded, girt,	girded, girt.
grave,	graved,	graven, graved.
hang, •	hung, hanged,*	hung, hanged.
hew,	hewed,	hewed, hewn.
kneel,	knelt, kneeled,	knelt, kneeled.
knit,	knit, knitted,	knit, knitted.
light,	lighted, lit,	lighted, lit.
mow,	mowed,	mown, mowed.
pen (to inclose),	pent, penned,	pent, penned.
quit,	quit, quitted,	quit, quitted.

<sup>\*</sup> Regular when it denotes the taking of life.

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
rive,	rived,	riven, rived.
rot,	rotted,	rotten, rotted.
saw,	sawed,	sawn, sawed.
shape,	shaped,	shapen, shaped.
shave,	shaved,	shaven, shaved.
shear, *	sheared,	sheared, shorn.
show,	showed,	shown, showed.
sow,	sowed,	sowed, sown.
spell,	spelt, spelled,	spelt, spelled.
spill,	spilt, spilled,	spilt, spilled.
strew,	strewed,	strewed, strewn.
strow,	strowed,	strowed, strown.
swell,	swelled,	swelled, swollen,
thrive,	thrived, throve,	thriven, thrived.
wax,	waxed,	waxen, waxed,
whet,	whet, whetted,	whet, whetted.
work,	wrought, worked,	wrought, worked.

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